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THE STATE OF PARTIES.

MR. COBDEN'S ability and position fully entitle him at M. the close of a session to comment on the policy of a Government and the condition of parties. In speaking, as well as in writing, his language and his reasoning are those of a logical, thoughtful, and cultivated mind, and even his growing egotism is connected with personal dignity and self-respect. In his previous attacks on Lord PALMERSTON, he had displayed unusual irritation; but his final denunciation of Ministerial extravagance and apostacy was courteous, although it was bitter. There is much truth in the complaint that the Government has discountenanced many theories which have at different times been professed by the Liberal party or by some of its sections. The Estimates have risen; and since Lord JOHN RUSSELL left the House of Commons, no Minister has thought it expedient to take his place as the official patron of Reform. Mr. Cobden gave utterance to feelings of dissatisfaction which many zealous Liberals would, for the sake of consistency, entertain if they could. Like uncongenial attendants at a Revival, they reproach themselves for the obdurate nerves which refuse to writhe, to groan, to weep, and to confess their own sins and Lord Palmerston's. According to their own principles, they are bound to clamour for Retrenchment and the Ballot, and yet they tamely allow an epicurean Minister to fortify the coasts and to abstain from botching the Constitution. As Mr. DISRAELI has repeatedly observed, different language was held at Willis's Rooms three years ago, when it was necessary to find some plausible reason for a change of Government. Lord Palmerston may perhaps think that a promise is to be interpreted secundum animum imponentis—as the majority really wishes his pledges to be kept. If he has broken his bond, the obligees are his accomkept. If he has broken his bond, the obligees are his accomplices, for two years ago they deliberately refused the tender of Parliamentary Reform. The Liberal party has acquiesced in the policy which it may not have formerly projected, and even the Opposition is willing to release any constructive liability which may have been incurred by the ejection of the late Government from office. The House of Commons shares Lord Palmerston's guilt, and the constituencies are as inconsistent as their representatives. The demands for Reform at the hustings were as insincere, or as superficial, as the promises which they produced, and the only earnest desire of the country has been gratified by the attention which has been paid to the national defences. A free nation is not likely to quarrel with its rulers because they have governed it, rightly or wrongly, according to its own will and pleasure.

It is true that there is an anomalous dislocation of parties, inasmuch as the best part of the Opposition prefers the

It is true that there is an anomalous dislocation of parties, inasmuch as the best part of the Opposition prefers the Minister to its own nominal leader; but an alliance of two extreme factions to coerce the moderate majority scarcely affords a more natural combination. Mr. Cobden gravely exhorts the Conservatives to propose a vote of want of confidence; and he promises to meet them with a detachment of deserters sufficient to carry the motion. Mr. Dispaeli, on his part, points out to the Liberals that they ought to insist on the adoption of Mr. Bright's doctrines by a Minister who forgot, at Willis's Rooms, to protest against the violence of his indispensable ally. It never occurs to either of the malcontent orators that their own concerted attack on the Government is a more flagrant compromise of consistency and principle than orators that their own concerted attack on the Government is a more flagrant compromise of consistency and principle than the temporizing prudence which they impute to their adversary. Mr. Disraeli is ready to censure the Minister because he has not abolished Church-rates, and because he ridicules the Ballot and detests universal suffrage. It might be curious to inquire whether Mr. Corden is enthusiastic in maintaining "the status of the Church," and setting up "a free aristocracy" as a bulwark against democracy, as well as against some unintelligible bugbear of oligarchy. It may be admitted that, on one side of the new confederacy, no invincible prejudices

interfere with possible harmony of action; but Mr. Disaall, with all his gifts, is scarcely worth converting to Radicalism, unless he can bring over to Mr. Corden a considerable number of his present supporters. The members of the Opposition are, to a man, pledged to oppose the Ballot, which, according to Mr. Corden's insimuating suggestion, would really tend to the advantage of their party; and it is highly improbable that they will act on an opinion which makes it difficult to understand why Mr. Corden himself should advocate a measure for the benefit of his irreconcilable opponents. If secret votes would promote the interests of a free, or any other aristocracy, confirmed democrata might be expected to prefer the ancient English practice. It is not surprising that a well-known admirer of French institutions should approve of elections where "the proceeding is as quiet and orderly as going to Church." He might have added, that the Assembly which results from the French ballot-box is as unanimous, or as passive, as a congregation under a pulpit; but the attempt to reconcile democratic innovations with Conservative prejudices was scarcely serious. After an ostensible display of cajolery, Mr. Corden proceeded to explain that he wished to bring a hostile Government into power for the purpose of meeting it with an active Opposition. It is supposed that, with a change of garrison, the fortrees of the Constitution will be more open to assault, and yet the future defenders of the post are invited to join in the conspiracy with full notice that they will immediately be attacked by their temporary confederates.

Mr. Disraeli is willing to accept help from any quarter, and he trusts to his own adroitness to baffle the subsequent hostility of his present ally. It was perhaps scarcely worth his while to bid so high for a support which would have been

attacked by their temporary confederates.

Mr. Disraelli is willing to accept help from any quarter, and he trusts to his own adroitness to baffle the subsequent hostility of his present ally. It was perhaps scarcely worth his while to bid so high for a support which would have been afforded to any opponent of Lord Palmerson. With curious inconsistency, Mr. Corden, while he boasts of his own superiority to party, complains of the general relaxation of party discipline. He would willingly see a majority matched with a compact and formidable minority, reserving to himself and to a faithful section of followers the right to secure the victory at pleasure to either faction. When he wishes to drive Lord Palmerson from office, it is disappointing to find that Mr. Walfole illogically declines to vote against his conscience for the sake of bringing his party into power. Mr. Corden himself has, as he complacently remarks, something to do outside the sphere of party, but it is presumptuous in ordinary politicians to refuse to follow their leader. By accepting the overtures of an inveterate antagonist, the Opposition might have promoted, according to Mr. Corden, the success of all the measures to which it is most thoroughly averse. By supporting Lord Palmerson in office, the Liberals secure the triumph of the principles which they happen at present to hold, not without detriment to certain doctrines which they have formerly favoured or professed. If they adopted the advice of their censorious counsellor, both parties would disregard their conscientious convictions, while one would sacrifice political power as well as public expediency.

As Mr. Corden required no bribe, Mr. Disraell's approximation to his policy is probably dictated by a certain intellectual necessity of covering a job by a sophism. A naked bargain requires a theory to conceal it, and accordingly it is discovered that a common ground of opposition may be found in Lord Palmerston is at variance with the French Government in America, in Italy, in Turkey, and

Mr. Disraell adopts the rumour, he virtually accuses Lord Palmerston of perseverance in the resolute neutrality which has hitherto been maintained. In Mexico, he must be understood to recommend armed co-operation for the purpose of imposing a particular form of government on a foreign country. In discussing Italian affairs, he has never concealed his dislike to national independence and unity, and he openly advocates the temporal power of the Pore. There is some pretext for the allegation that the two Governments have inconsistent objects to attain in their Eastern policy; and as Lord Palmerston has steadily resisted projects of partition in Turkey, Mr. Disraell must be supposed to favour the league of France and Russia for the spoliation of the Porte. War with the United States, war with Mexico, war with the Sultan, and emmity with Italy, constitute the wise, statesmanlike, and economical policy which the House of Commons is invited to sanction. If the present Ministers are somewhat careless of public approval, they have an excuse in the unfailing resource of popularity which their enemies gratuitously provide for their use. Lord Palmerston is protected, if not by his own merits, at least by the contrast which his acts present to the wild proposals of his rival. Mr. Disraell and Mr. Corden divide between them almost every opinion and every tendency which is most repugnant to the prejudices and to the moral judgment of Englishmen.

AMERICA.

MR. SPENCE has published another spirited pamphlet in favour of immediate recognition of the Southern Confederacy. Two of the propositions which he establishes may be accepted as indisputable, for the English Government has a perfect right to recognise any new Power; and the population of Lancashire is urgently in want of cotton. To complete the argument, it would be necessary to explain how simple recognition would tend to open the export trade of the South. The blockade can only be raised by hostile measures, and war with the North would, even if other considerations were set aside, be more expensive than the temporary stoppage of the cotton-mills. Verbal recognition would only encourage the Confederates, who want no encouragement; and it would furnish a sort of excuse for the blatant spite against England which occupies the lungs and pens of all Federal politicians. It is not desirable that the Government should perform a solemn act which would be followed by no legitimate result. The friends of the South hope that a measure which is theoretically consistent with neutrality would, either through Federalist rashness or from impatience for a supply of cotton, shortly lead to active intervention. It is possible that a more active policy may hereafter be found expedient; but it would be highly unwise to take the first step before resolving to venture the second. The best excuse which the North has assigned for its obstinate prosecution of the war is derived from the geographical formation of the two belligerent Republies. Of eighty-four large navigable rivers in the territory of the extinct Federation, seventy-two find their way to the sea within the limits of the Confederate States. It is not unnatural that the North should feel a deep reluctance to part with the natural outlets of its produce; but, on the other hand, all mankind have an interest in keeping open seventy-two chief highways of the world. The unparalleled moderation of England has excited little gratitude in the North, and it must not be mistaken

can only do harm by formal recognition of the Confederacy.

The wanton inaccuracy of the New York papers reduces the current history of the war to a process of conjecture. According to recent statements, the new levy of troops is progressing with unexpected rapidity; the enlistments amount to about one-tenth of the President's demand; the Governor of Ohio threatens a conscription; the whole population is eager for war; and 50,000 skulkers from M'Clellan's army are representing military enthusiasm in the different States of the North. It is not the custom of American

journalists to waste their time in reconciling their own conflicting allegations; but their reports of the extra vagant abuse of furloughs are confirmed by their familiarle with the Parliamentary practices of Washington. It seems that among the teeming forms of corruption which have been among the teening forms of corruption which have been nurtured by the war, members of Congress have devised a system of jobbing in furloughs and discharges for the benefit of their constituents. It is said that individual senators and representatives have deprived the army of as many as 300 able-bodied soldiers apiece; and though it is improbable that a New York libel should be strictly true, the scandal has probably some foundation in fact. Reinforcements have been sent to M'Clellan's army, but it is doubtful whether he will be able to maintain his present position. The Con-federates have undisputed possession of the right bank of the James River, and their batteries will be able to damage and James River, and their batteries will be able to damage and annoy the Federal store ships, even if the river is too broad to be closed by their fire. For the present, disease is doing their work effectually, and it would perhaps be advantageous to M'CLELLAN if he were compelled to retreat on York Town and Fortress Monroe. In Northern Virginia, General POPE has performed a difficult achievement in publishing the absurdest general order of the campaign. He assures his troops that lines of retreat are unnecessary for an advancing army, and that it is only the enemy's line of retreat with which they are concerned. It may be true that the rank and file of an army have no business with strategy; but a general is not called upon to correct presumption by uttering arrant is not called upon to correct presumption by uttering arrant nonsense. In a more practical series of orders, General Portinforms his officers and men that they are to subsist on the enemy's property, and that no guard is to be allowed to private houses. A few months ago, the Federal Government proposed to England and France that private property should be exempted from hostile seizure, at sea as well as on land; and when the project was advocated in the House of Commons. Sir George Lewis incurred some criticism by expressing his disbelief in the assumed immunity which served as the disbelief in the assumed immunity which served as the foundation of the argument. General Pope, as well as the President and Congress, have now declared their purpose of plundering all private property which can be found in the hostile territory; and the main objection to the Act of Confiscation was founded on its alleged superfluity, as it was asserted that no general ever hesitated to live on an enemy's country. The frantic partisans of the North in England, who were formerly fantation for peace, will of course ampland an extension of the licence of partisans of the North in England, who were formerly fanatics for peace, will of course applaud an extension of the licence of war, arguing, perhaps, that rebels are not entitled to the rights of belligerents. The Confederate Government has, however, extorted, in the recent convention for exchanges, a qualified recognition from the enemy. There can be no doubt that the precedent of universal pillage will be followed, if the threatened invasion of Canada is ever carried into effect.

If General Halleck is, as real Minister of War, to direct the campaign from Washington, his appointment as Commander-in-Chief is highly judicious. Mr. Stanton and Mr. Lincoln himself have, by their control of the generals, probably shared largely in the responsibility for recent defeats. A great army scattered over a wide range of country requires professional guidance; and although General Halleck has obtained no success in the field, he is a veteran and scientific soldier. In an able Essay which he lately published on the organization of armies, he took occasion to express a decided opinion of the qualifications of the Butlers, the Bankses, and the Kings, who have intrigued themselves into high military posts. "In our country," he says, "it seems to be thought "that anybody will do for a general; and a politiciam or a "pettifogger has only to put on epaulettes, and exchange his "stump speeches or briefs for a sword, in order to qualify him "to lead armies in the field, and to direct the complicated operations of a campaign, siege, or battle. While we must "admire the brazen impudence of the individuals who make "these sudden and wonderful transformations, it is difficult to "understand why the Government, which is supposed to seek victories rather than defeats, should appoint such men to "command our armies, and why a people who are supposed "to value their lives and reputation should tolerate them." In the body of the Essay, General Halleck points out the imprudence of moving, as the Federal armies have uniformly moved, on exterior lines, while the enemy occupied a central position. If the President can muster a second army, the ensuing campaign may, perhaps, be conducted more effectively than the ambitious combinations which were popularly compared to the folds of the anaconda. The "brazen impudence of the civilian officer will at least be effectually restrained."

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of a flaming woman's advocate, generally construe the slightest of hints into the most explicit of promises.

In the case of Thomas v. Shieler, the fair plaintiff tried both documentary and oral evidence. But in each case she

In the case of Thomas v. Shieley, the fair plaintiff tried both documentary and oral evidence. But in each case she bent the bow a little too strongly. The history of this young lady is, we trust, not typical; and we should be loth to regard her as a representative woman. She presents the materials—in this instance, not the raw materials—of a novelist's heroine. An orphan, assisted by the trifling legacy of a relative, she was enabled to commence what is sentimentally styled the battle of life, under creditable auspices. She pursued the honourable calling of a governess, and in that capacity she "entered the families" of two solicitors. Whether her three years and a half experience in teaching the young scions of the law disgusted her with the work of instruction, or whether an ungrateful world scarcely appreciated her "educational" powers, we are not distinctly told, but a change came over her ambition. Under the advice of a "Miss "Moon, the Lady-Principal of the Collegiate and Musical "Agency Office, in Newman Street," in whose father's house she resided, she advertised for the situation of housekeeper to a gentleman. The office sought was certainly as ambiguous as the terms in which Miss Thomas, under experienced advice, offered her services. It was from "a widower "or single gentleman" that "the young lady, accomplished and of ladylike deportment, was desirous of obtaining an engagement as housekeeper." Her name being plain Anne, she preferred to be "addressed as Constance." An advertisement so romantic and suggestive, at least to the carnal mind, was answered by a Major-General Shieley.

plain Anne, she preferred to be "addressed as Constance." An advertisement so romantic and suggestive, at least to the carnal mind, was answered by a Major-General Shirley, a man of family and fortune, and on the look-out for what he would style "bonnes fortunes," who kept a considerable establishment, and was blest with a wife, who was also blest with a separate maintenance. Brookside Lodge is the gallant soldier's residence, and his Rugby paradise only lacked a casual Evr. Although fifty years of age, the General possessed a handsome person as well as fortune; but, according to the burning words of Serjeant Shee—for Serjeant Buffer was not in the case—he "proved himself as heartless a seducer "as ever appeared in a court of justice." On the one side, "a girl, young, poor, and friendless"—on the other, rank, fortune, experience of life, and every external quality which could fascinate innocence and simplicity. Nothing could be more interesting or proper than Miss Thomas's view of so ambiguous a situation as housekeeper to such a man. It would be equivocal—it would compromise her—the cold, cruel world would misunderstand the position. To be sure, it was exactly what she advertised for; but the reality of her own suggestion appalled her tender and alarmed virtue. She positively declined the situation; but so meek and attractive was her demeanour, and "so silvery "her voice," that she fairly fascinated the experienced General. The lion was in love, and so much in love that at the very second interview, the very day after they met, Hercules "offered" Omphale "his hand and fortune." It was

the very second interview, the very day after they met, Hercules "offered" Omphale "his hand and fortune." It was

"arranged that they should meet again, and in a short "time she should be his wife." Such is Serjeant Shee's historical statement. These arrangements were carried out

with a celerity and completeness which showed that the General was a veteran in the courts of Venus as well as on the fields of Mars. He at once proposes that the young lady should "meet him at a friend's house, a most respectable woman,

"who will not in any way be curious as to our meeting in her "house;" and further, that "she should leave town with him

"house;" and further, that "she should leave town with him "for Saturday and Sunday, just for a run in the country or a "trip to the seaside." We are led to the conclusion that this is the practice with engaged persons. It seems that, as soon as ever a promise of marriage has been given and accepted, it is our English custom for the gentleman and lady to meet at the house of a most respectable woman, in "Charlotte Street, Portland Place"—the initial letter of this street is important—and run down solus cum sold to Southend.

street is important—and run down solus cum sold to Southend. It is a trait in our national manners. In this instance, the

whole train of perfidy was carried out just as in a book. The fair innocent modestly and coyly declined to meet her mature swain at his convenient and uninquiring friend's residence in Charlotte Street; but he did persuade her to dine with him a little way out of town. "After dinner, the last train had "gone;" and "then her ruin was effected." As in the famous

Seduxit miles virginem locatus in hybernis;

Seduxit virgo militem. Now, in this painful history, all that was really important was when and where the promise of marriage was given. It was

Latin version of Miss Bailey's sad misfortune -

or, as the jury ultimately thought -

An advertisement so romantic and suggestive, at least to the

The news from the West is not encouraging to the Federalists. The canal which was to divert the Mississippi from Vicksburg has not been dug, and a Confederate ram, forcing its way through the besieging flotilla, anchored triumphantly under the guns of the fort. Commodore Faranaur, who

lately threatened to bombard an undefended city, finds it less

alienate the sympathies of all prudent and moderate bystanders. In a short time they will probably succeed in arraying the philanthropic friends of the negro on the side of the South.

INFERENTIAL PROMISE OF MARRIAGE.

WE have abolished the action for Crim. Con., yet substantially it survives. We have never formally recognised the principle that an unmarried woman can set a pecuniary value on her chastity; yet, by a legal fiction, her parent can claim damages for loss of her domestic services during her confinement. Where there is no person to set up this claim for time lost through the accouchement of an unmarried person, no section for saduction will lie. The

unmarried person, no action for seduction will lie. The obvious defect in this state of the law is, that the least protected female—the orphan girl, who is without the safeguards of home and family—is left the most defenceless. The solitary lamb is the most natural and easy prey to the wolf. But there are lamb, who coessionally show something of the for's

there are lambs who occasionally show something of the fox's faculties. It is as though nature, in a wisely compensating dispensation, made amends for the untoward accidents of life. The wind is tempered to the shorn one. British law, in arming

the unprotected female with the powers of the action for breach of promise of marriage, has made ample amends for its

apparent harshness in not giving a girl a pecuniary interest in her virtue. Miss Thomas has just tried, in her action with General Shirley, the utmost capacities of this very peculiar British institution. The present assizes seem destined to test the limits to which this action can go; and

perhaps a check was wanting to its elastic facilities. At Durham, a curious case has just been tried, in which an injured female who had a little misfortune has contrived to

extract 150l. from the father of the little misfortune, on the

strength of two letters containing a promise of marriage,

although the said letters were written by one who, on this

occasion, though otherwise not an illiterate person, forgot how to spell his own name. At York, a still more curious case, illustrating the tenderness of the law, has occurred. An aged

plaintiff of sixty-one has just got a verdict with 500l. damages, for a breach of promise of marriage made more than forty years ago, the accompaniment or consequent of which promise was a little stranger who has been in the grave some thirty-one years. Such being the actual working of the

ladies' action, even the Committee for the Defence of Women's Rights can scarcely urge a grievance in the present state of the law as regards marriage and things pertaining to marriage.

The law has not defined promise, because promise is, perhaps, undefinable. Documentary evidence of promise is of course the best—so good is it that it occasionally tempts to something which, as in the Durham case, looks a little too good.

out by oral evidence; and though the parties to the action are not allowed to appear as witnesses in their own case, there is generally enough of amorous talk to fasten some hints of intended matrimony even upon the coldest of suitors; and, to do them justice, British jurors, under the influence

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lately threatened to bombard an undefended city, finds it less easy to reduce a regular fortress. He has consequently raised the siege, and returned to aid General Butler in securing with his gun-boats the police of New Orleans. Deprived of the support of the fleet, General Buell will find it difficult to maintain himself in Tennessee; and all Kentucky is agitated by rumoured plots and by guerilla expeditions. The boast that the great river had been recovered to the Union was altogether premature. Iron-cased gunboats may pass safely up and down the Mississippi; but the shores are commanded for hundreds of miles by the Confederates, and the internal trade is wholly at their mercy. On the upper part of the river, the cause of emancipation is promoted by a quarrel between the Irish boatmen and the negroes. While the Northern Abolitionists are exhorting the President to call coloured armies into the field, the compatriots of the best and most numerous Federal soldiers absolutely refuse to allow the negro to work by their side. diers absolutely refuse to allow the negro to work by their side. diers absolutely refuse to allow the negro to work by their side. Excluded by legislation from the North-West, despised on the Atlantic seaboard, oppressed and persecuted on the Western Border, the negro race is not unlikely to prefer the masters whom it knows to the selfish stranger who in the moment of need invites its co-operation. From the beginning of the war, the Federalists have contrived with incredible ingenuity to

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admitted that General SHIRLEY, "with a craft and cunning almost "incredible, excluded from his letters almost every word which "made express reference to marriage;" but, so Serjeant Sher argued, such promise "might fairly be inferred." We are asked, therefore, to believe that, when a young person of "accommightments and ladylike deportment" advertises for a situation as housekeeper to a widower or a single man, and when such widower or single man — only in this case he was a married man - answers such advertisement, and after a single interview man—answers such advertisement, and after a single interview addresses the lady as his "darling little Annie," and proposes a three days' trip to the country with her, without a single word about marriage, he means marriage all the time, and substantially promises it. This is the legal doctrine of in-

ferential promise of marriage.

Miss Thomas — who, after "her ruin was effected," was installed as mistress of Brookside Lodge, and passed under the name of Mrs. Shirley — seems to have discovered that the inferential promise wanted verbal strength. So, with artless simplicity, she writes a pretty letter to her lover reminding him of a certain promise and demanding its fulfilment, not without a dark reference to legal proceedings; and in order to secure that little link which was wanting in the golden chain which was to secure her a husband or goodly damages, she plants a convenient and faithful friend within earshot of the General's answer to her tender complaints of her sad fate and betrayed answer to her tender compaints of her sad late and becaused virtue, more particularly in the matter of being obliged to wear a summer bonnet and cloak in December. The gallant General, however, though the interview was stormy, like the season, never pleaded to the promise. In dark December he forgot or denied the secret pledges and promises of May. Miss Thomas, under the advice of the Messrs. Lewis, attorneys, beinge her action and takes nothing the vity.

brings her action and takes nothing by it.

But society takes a good deal by it; and to Baron Bramwell
we owe—what was only to be expected from a British judge a profitable little essay on the difference between real and ficti-tious seduction. After enlarging, with what is styled "indignant "emphasis," on the crime of robbing a woman of her purity and peace of mind under base and fraudulent pretences, the learned Baron proceeded to remark that there might be cases in which no promise of marriage was ever given or thought of, and that there might be women who not unwillingly were won, and who sold themselves with their eyes open, merely to extort money by the threat and terror of exposure. Under such circumstances, to give a verdict to a woman would be a most cruel wrong and a grievous injury to society. If, because a woman has a child by a man, a jury is to infer a promise of marriage, then women will be encouraged to vice and im-morality. These emphatic remarks received an emphatic answer from the jury. They gave a verdict for the defendant; and, much as we may pity Miss Thomas, public morality is to be congratulated; for, often as the action for seduction and the action for breach of promise have been used for evil and wrong, no case is conceivable in which a heavier wrong could have been inflicted on society and morals than by giving a verdict to Miss Thomas. One thing this curious case disposes of the doctrine of inferential promise of marriage. And another, the doctrine of interential promise of marriage. And another, though a minor, benefit it confers on society in general, when it teaches us in what sense to read advertisements by accomplished young ladies for the post of "Housekeeper to a "widower or single gentleman." A third piece of information which it incidentally conveys is how to estimate the discretion of "Lady Principals of Collegiate and Musical Agency Offices," and of the sort of nuns in whom such abbesses take an interest

GARIBALDI.

IT is a great misfortune that a hero should be a fool. With an ordinary capacity for reasoning as a basis for his moral enthusiasm and active energy, Garinaldi would be one of the greatest of living men. It is not necessary that he should be exempt from the generous imprudence which is not unconnected with instinctive sagacity in discerning the weak points of an enemy. His judgment has sometimes reduced dangers to their true proportions, when cautious advisers would have recommended him to abstain from an impracticable enterprise. When he landed at Marsala, and when he afterwards marched on Naples, the result showed that he had rightly estimated the resistance which he undertook to overcome. The accident of loyalty or courage in a single regiment, or a capricious deviation, on the part of the King, from the traditional cowardice of his family, might have baffled his conjectural calculations; but the game was worth playing, when the daring adventurer saw that there was a chance of winning, and saw nothing else. It may be urged that, in the

execution of his present projects, he may once more disappoint expectation; and, as it is uncertain whether he is aiming at Rome, at Hungary, or at Turkey, it is difficult to extend the probability of his success. It is not, however, as an imprudent leader, but as a perversely unconscious rebel, that he is meriting unqualified and universal censure. The transfer of the propagation of the project of the propagation of the project of the p King's proclamation expresses the opinion of every sane politician when it declares that hostilities against foreign Powers, undertaken without the authority of the Government, are acts of mutiny and civil war. Having made Italy one by the annexation of Naples to Piedmont, Garrialdo now attempts to call it into two hysterican participations. shire action of Napies to Piedmont, GARBALDI now attempts to split it into two by setting up in his own person a despotic independence of the Crown and the Parliament. He appears to be incapable of understanding that a State is reduced to anarchy if even the greatest of subjects can overrule the policy of the Government. A direct attempt at revolution might be consistent with a devotion to national unity; but a claim to exercise individual discretion in questions of peace and war is incompatible with sary intelligible form of loyalty. If Garibaldi were versed in ancient history, he would know that Tyrants were private persons who relied on their popularity and their military reputation to supersede the regular magistracy of the State. It was because they disregarded the law, and not because their power was necessarily misused, that the class of usurpers became so hateful to free populationa that their distinctive name has become hateful to posterity. In acknowledging the rightful existence of a Government which he at the same time refuses to obey, GARIBALDI, if he is less criminal, is more illogical than PISISTRATUS or

A defective reasoning faculty leaves a vacancy to be supplied by some alien impulse, and at present Mazzini, by means of his emissaries, thinks for Garibaldi. The passive hero, like the slave of the ring or of the lamp, impartially obeys the successive masters who have the luck or skill to get possession of his intellect. ALADDIN orders the genius to build a marvel-lous palace, and the edifice of the Italian Monarchy springs from the ground; but when the wicked magician, MAZZINI, has the opportunity of commanding in his turn, the costly fabric is exposed to sudden and wanton destruction. It is much to be wished that the miraculous lamp could once more be safely deposited on its shelf at Caprera. RATAZZI knew its virtues, and took it down; but he failed to keep it to himself. The King may, perhaps, by his personal intervention, once more snatch it from the hands of his adversary. It is necessary that the Italian Government should prove to the world that it can maintain its supremacy at home, and it would be far more desirable that GARIBALDI should be talked over than that his inchoate rebellion should be suppressed by force. His enlistments of troops for an unknown object are incompatible with order or with civilization. If one general can go to war on his own account, a dozen rivals may claim the same privilege, and even without foreign intervention Italy may sink to the degraded condition of Mexico. Garibaldi himself probably intends only to assail those whom he regards as the foreign enemies of his country; but the Royal troops cannot allow him to march on Rome or on the Austrian provinces without a resistance which will be the commencement of a without a resistance which will be the commencement of a civil war. In conniving at the Sicilian expedition, the Government of Turin tried a dangerous experiment which cannot be converted into a precedent. After the landing at Marsala, the Northern sympathizers formed a part of the insurgent army, and the Piedmontese Government was not then bound to interfere for the protection of the Neapolitan throne. In a war for the possession of Rome or of Venice, it would be impossible to maintain even temperary and extensible and impossible to maintain even temporary and ostensible neu-trality. The only enterprise which would not call for immediate interference would be an invasion of the Austrian immediate interference would be an invasion of the Austrian provinces on the East of the Adriatic. As the auxiliary of a Hungarian insurrection, Garibaldi would once more become, as in Sicily, a private adventurer, without incurring at the same time the guilt of rebellion against his own Government. There is no reason to suppose that such an expedition has been meditated, or that it is practicable, but there would be a certain ingenuity in preparing an attack on Austria by irrelevant vituperation of the Emperor of the French.

The Italian Parliament is nearly unanimous in rejecting the pretensions of a subject to place himself above the law. There can be little doubt that the sound part of the population, especially in the North, will approve the vigorous measures, which have been adopted to suppress the nascent rebellion, Even in Sicily, the applause which greeted the insane speeches of the former Liberator has not, to any considerable extent, translated itself into overt acts. A few foolish young men have seized some muskets belonging

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Uni pro to the National Guard, and GARIBALDI has disgraced himself by visiting their encampment and sanctioning the outrage which they had committed. There is reason to hope that by this time the insurgents have surrendered to the Royal troops, and if their leader will take warning by the diluxe of his attempt, all rection will concur in allowing him.

the koyal troops, and it their leader will concur in allowing him a somewhat irregular impunity. In the course of a few weeks he has almost compensated his enemies for all the damage

he has almost compensated his enemies for all the damage which they have formerly suffered at his hands. The Papal Court would not have exchanged the Sicilian agitation for half-a-dozen Irish brigades, or for a fresh batch of promises of French support. Austria sees the Italian army employed in suppressing civil commotions instead of threatening the frontier; and the dreaded enemy, who was thought to have the secret of raising the population, is the object of suspicion and repression to the Government which he lately served. Even the Emperor of the French has acquired a new hold on Ratzzi and on Victor Emanuel : and his worn-out excusses

the Emperor of the FRENCH has acquired a new hold on KATAZZI and on VICTOR EMMANUEL; and his worn-out excuses for holding Rome are freshened up by the proof which has been afforded that the Italian Government is not yet strong enough to defy anarchy and revolution. England alone, which has, with a steadfast cordiality, rejoiced in the growth of Italian independence, laments the partial disappointment of the hopes

which rested in some degree on Garibaldor's supposed loyalty. The attainment of Rome and Venice has been removed by his criminal rushness to an indefinite distance. His best officers, Medic, Sirtori, and Bixio, mourn over his delusion, and

warn their countrymen against complicity with his designs. The regret of all his friends, the exultation of all the enemies

of his country, ought to rouse him at last to the true character of his present counsellors.

The enemies of freedom and of right can scarcely be blamed

The enemies of freedom and of right can scarcely be blamed if they improve the occasion by showing that the conqueror of Sicily is now in arms against the Government of Victor Emmanuel. The practical force of their argument will be dependent on the extent and continuance of the disturbances, which will, it may be hoped, be suppressed without an actual collision. Some equivalent for the loss of Garibaldi's services may be furnished by the experimental proof that the Government can dely even the most formidable

proof that the Government can defy even the most formidable

competitor. If GARIBALDI can be safely coerced, there will

be little reason to fear the malignant activity of Mazzini. The whole transaction illustrates the imbecile incoherence of modern revolutionary doctrines. Garibaldi's prompters belong to the faction which attempted to detach Genca from

Piedmont at a time when Florence and Naples, Modena, Parma, and Bologna still belonged to anti-national dynasties.

Parma, and Bologna still belonged to anti-national dynasties. Under the idle pretext of a proposed march upon Rome they now desire to alienate the nation and the army from their allegiance to Victor Emmanuel. Preference of a particular form of Government to national independence is the worst species of treason; and it is characteristic of Garibaldi that, although he is an accomplice in the Republican conspiracy, he has never understood the nature of his acts, nor has he repudiated his allegiance to the Crown. The few Sicilians who have joined the insurgent cause may in some degree be excusable for trusting in the leader to whom they owe their emancipation, and when the agitation is effectually suppressed.

emancipation, and when the agitation is effectually suppressed, Garibaldi himself may be pardoned, because he is Garibaldi.

COTTON SUPPLY.

THE discussions on the petition which Lord Shaftesbury presented from the Cotton Supply Association, and on the Rate in Aid Bill, have brought out distinctly enough the views of the House of Lords upon the cotton crisis. There is, unhappily, but little to be done by public efforts. The distress has been caused by the reckless fury of American passion, and in a more remote, but not less certain, way by the almost equally reckless policy of our own manufacturers. The remedy is only to be looked for when wisdom or necessity shall have forced America once more to open her markets, or have driven the mill-owners of Lancashire to look elsewhere for

have driven the mill-owners of Lancashire to look elsewhere for

a supply of raw material. It was almost impossible for Parliament

to reject the nearly unanimous demand of the Lancashire Unions for borrowing powers, but the prudence of drawing on the future for supplies which there is abundance of existing property to furnish can only be justified by assuming an expectation, on the part of the manufacturers, that in some way or the the chief.

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thus given shall not be forgotten at a future time. The present prospect is gloomy enough, from whatever

other the debt will ultimately be shifted from their own shoul-ders to those of the country at large. They have, by the mouths of their principal representatives, energetically repudiated any such idea; and it will be for the country to see that the pledge

point of view it is regarded; but it is precisely the uncertainty of the light in which it ought to be viewed that is the principal cause of the mischief. It is not merely the loss of the American supply, but rather the existence of the 4,000,000 bales of cotton hoarded in the unapproachable recesses of the Confederate territory, which is plunging the operatives of Lancashire into hopeless distress. Even this alone might not have brought the evil to its present pitch if there had been no hope of obtaining the requisite material from other quarters. But with a prospective supply from India, sufficient (if once the trade could be thoroughly organized) to replace, in a great measure, all that the American war has deprived us of, and with the possibility of a sudden flood of cotton from America at any moment when the war shall terminate, we are in a far worse condition than if the difficulty could only be tided over by strenuous exertion in a definite direction. With a suppression of truth which deceives no one, Mr. Conden and others have ascribed the apathy of the manufacturers to their traditional reverence for the laws of political economy. Anything more transparently absurd can scarcely be conceived than the assertion that it is a legitimate course of business for a mill-owner in Manchester to send a buyer to Liverpool, where cotton is no longer to be had, and a wholly irregular. a mill-owner in Manchester to send a buyer to Liverpool, where cotton is no longer to be had, and a wholly irregular and improper proceeding to accredit such an agent in Bombay or Dharwar, where the raw material exists in abundance. So conscious has Mr. Cobden shown himself of this, that he has carefully abstained from grappling with the only suggestion that has been seriously urged, and affects to believe that the sole alternative open to the mill-owners is to continue their present inaction, or to become themselves the growers of the

cotton they require. If the Federal troops had succeeded in penetrating so far into the Southern territory as to force the planters to destroy the whole of their existing store of cotton, we should have heard nothing of laws of trade which are supposed to prevent the consumers of raw cotton from seeking it in India and elsewhere. While the trade remains subject to the risk of a sudden convulsion from the cessation of the American war, it is no doubt hazardous for any one, whether he be a mill-owner or a Parsee speculator, to buy cotton in India for export to England. The manufacturers prefer to leave the risk to the England. The manufacturers prefer to leave the risk to the natives of India, and are not sparing in their complaints of the want of enterprise of the half-civilized race on whom they rely. Probably the risk has been largely exaggerated on both sides, but it has been enough to freeze up all the enterprise of Lancashire, and it is not surprising that it should have damped the release of Rephysical Medical

the ardour of Bombay or Madras. In the meanwhile, there is one way in which the power of India to compete with any rivals may be developed without any fear of incurring a useless expenditure. Roads and canals will bear their fruits in India, even in the improbable event of an entire collapse of her cotton trade; and though very much has already been done by the authorities, there is room for more enterprise in the same direction almost without limit. But for the possible difficulty of obtaining an effective staff for the whole work, it would be by far the most advantageous policy for the Government of India to take into its own hands policy for the Government of India to take into its own hands the entire speculation of road and canal-making within its own territories; but as there is little prospect of the work being pushed on with the rapidity that circumstances call for without extraneous aid, the alternative which Lord Shaffesburk pressed upon the House of Lords is recommended by unanswerable arguments. The chief objections to the employment of private capital in undertakings of this kind is removed by the offer of those immediately concerned to discense with of private capital in undertakings of this kind is removed by the offer of those immediately concerned to dispense with a Government guarantee, and to give up all profits beyond 12 per cent to the Indian Treasury. The inconvenience of vesting canal and irrigation works in private hands has been submitted to in the case of the Madras Irrigation Company to the extent of 1,000,000l.; and it would be unthrifty policy to refuse the permission which they ask to expend their own money, at their own risk, in a further extension of their scheme. Means of communication and increased facilities for cotton cultivation will not, it is further extension of their scheme. Means of communication and increased facilities for cotton cultivation will not, it is true, create the effective demand which is the real thing needed to establish a steady flow of Indian cotton into the English market; but whatever diminishes the cost and difficulty of transit must promote the traffic, and may have an effect sufficient to set Indian merchants vigorously to work, although it may not call into activity the more sluggish efforts of capitalists in England. It is quite established that the only demand which deserves the name is the demand in India of agents, with money in their hands, calling on the ryots for cotton, and offering rupees in exchange. This demand does not yet exist; and it is mere affectation on the part of Manchester firms to say that the supply ought to come of itself, when the only offer they make is to purchase any Indian cotton which may arrive at Liverpool, provided nothing happens in the interval between the shipment and the arrival to make the commodity a drug in the market.

It is remarkable that, while Lord SHAFTESBURY points to the contrast between the dearth in England and the abundance in

contrast between the dearth in England and the abundance in India, that which rivets the attention of those most familar with the industry of Lancashire is not the Indian supply, but the American hoard. Lord Overstone may be supposed to combine the knowledge which the manufacturers possess with a more independent and unbiassed judgment as to the chances of the future; and it is to be observed that he gives full credit to the largest estimate which has been formed of the stock of cotton remaining in the Southern States, and seems to look more hopefully to the possibility of peace across the Atlantic than to the chances of a substituted supply from other sources. That this is the feeling of the mill-owners themselves has been sufficiently demonstrated; but there is, at the same time, abundant evidence of the capabilities of India, while there are weighty reasons for fearing that, in any event, the whole supply of our factories can never again be drawn from the ports of the Confederacy. The recent desperate movement in New York Confederacy. The recent desperate movement in New York in favour of an Abolitionist policy is not likely to restore victory to the Stars and Stripes; but all recent occurrences point to the experiment of encouraging a servile war as cer tain to be tried before the contest is finally abandoned. tain to be tried before the contest is finally abandoned. The fidelity of the slaves to their masters may not altogether yield to such inducements, and it will certainly not be from any affection for the Yankees if they are persuaded to grasp at the freedom which is offered them. Still, the temptation is, in appearance at any rate, considerable, and the result is not unlikely to be a great diminution in the supply, and a great increase in the cost, of labour for the cultivation of Southern plantations. A permanent enhancement of price can scarcely fail to be the consequence, and this permanence is the only thing needed to establish the Indian trade on a satisfactory basis. Even the caution of Manchester capitalists, which is proof against the seductions of a market extravagantly high, would cease to exclude speculation in the markets of India, if the prices of the next three or four years were certain to range at even two-thirds of their present rates. The complete restoration of the American trade, or its utter disorganization, would equally bring relief to the distress which is caused by present uncertainties; and, without affecting the gift of prophecy, it may be anticipated that, by one event or the other, the painful and ruinous suspense which is now endured must before very long be put an end to.

IRISH CRIME.

THE Irish papers are dismal reading just now. One day, we are entertained with archiepiscopal homilies on the ethics of treason and rebellion, enriched with suggestive illustrations from contemporaneous history, and received with irrepressible delight by gentlemen who, as members of the Imperial Legislature, have taken the oath of allegiance to Queen VICTORIA. Another day, the current topic is a libel case, the interest of which consists in the circumstances under which, in the month of December last, a Mayo landlord demolished seventeen houses, and turned some eighty or ninety men, women, and children out into the snow. But the murders, the murderous asseults, and the murderous notices, of which we are constantly reading, constitute the most characteristic feature of the Ireland of 1862. After an interval of comparative tran-quillity, lawless and savage passions which appeared to be gradually yielding to the humanizing influences of education, peaceful industry, and just legislation, have broken out anew, and we seem to be once more living in the worst days of Ribbonism. The series of atrocities which led to the issue of the recent Special Commissions are still fresh in the public memory, and need no recapitulation here. remembers, too, how the failure of justice in the case of one at least of the foulest assassinations on the records even of Irish crime was exultingly welcomed by a populace which never sides with the murdered victim, but always with the murderer. All countries have their great crimes and their great criminals; but it is only in Ireland that we find that popular sympathy with assassination which delights to screen and shelter assassins. There is but one country on the face of the earth in which it would be possible for a Judge on the bench to deplore—as Baron Deasy did a few days ago at the Tipperary assizes—the existence of a wide-spread public opinion in favour of homicide. The witness who lately startled a Longford jury with the assertion that "many very

"decent people are fond of murderers," merely expressed in a grotesque form, a melancholy and notorious fact. "Dozain

in a grotesque form, a melancholy and notorious fact.

The latest Irish murder usually seems, for the time being, the worst; but it may safely be said, all things considered, that even Tipperary has surpassed itself in the assassination of Mr. Braddell. It is unnecessary to inquire how far the antecedents of the victim entitle him to any special sympathy, though he is stated on judicial authority to have been a man of humane disposition, just in his dealings, mild and inoffensive in his manners, and incapable of a harsh or oppressive act. Be this, however, as it may, the story of his assassination is perfectly unmatched as an illustration of the Ireland of the day. It was by no lonely wayside, but in an hotel situated day. It was by no lonely wayside, but in an hotel situated in the most public thoroughfare of a thriving county town, and in the presence of two apparently respectable witnesses, that the deed of blood was done. The time was the middle of the day, when the pursuit and capture of the assassin might have been thought a matter of course. The weapon was a pistol, the report of which would, one might suppose, have instantly brought a score of people to the spot. The murderer was no stranger to the neighbourhood, hired from a distance in order to elude identification, but a man perfectly well known both to his victim and to the two persons who were present in the room. It is not suggested that the witnesses were accomthe room. It is not suggested that the witnesses were accomplices, though their subsequent conduct was singular. One of them, at any rate, having succeeded the assassin, HAYES, in the post of bailiff to Braddell, can scarcely be supposed to have been on suspiciously good terms with his discarded predecessor. It cannot be said that the deed was committed with that instan-It cannot be said that the deed was committed with that instantaneous suddenness which may momentarily deprive a bystander of his presence of mind; for there was a previous altercation about rent, in which HAYES "got angry, and was "very much excited." Altogether, it is impossible to conceive a murder perpetrated under circumstances better calculated to ensure the immediate capture of the murderer. Nevertheless, he made his escape from the hotel and from the town, apparently without risk or difficulty. There is no evidence but the unsupported assertion of Moore and his companion that the slightest attempt was made by either of the bystanders to arrest the assassin, or to give the alarm; and it is certain that no alarm was given until it was too late to seize the fugitive. Once out of reach of immediate pursuit, HAYES was safe under the protection of Tipperary public opinion. Though numbers of persons must probably have been able, from the first, to furnish some clue to justice, no one was found to give the police any assistance in trackone was found to give the ponce any assistance in tracking him out. There can be no great doubt of his eventual capture, but it is clear that popular feeling is, as usual,
on the side of crime and the criminal. "Is the whole of
"Tipperary at the beck of a murderer?" asks the indignant coroner. Horrible as is the thought, it is but too plain that coroner. Horrine as is the thought, it is out too plain that the question can only be answered in one way. This popular complicity with assassination is the more significant, since there was everything in HAYES'S previous career to repel guilty sympathies. The man had formerly been employed by BRADDELL in the eviction of hundreds of families, and he is described as one of the worst specimens of the unpopular bailiff class. The murder of a landlord's agent is his solitary, but sufficient, claim on the goodwill of Tipperary.

After all that we have heard, and half believed, of the moral regeneration of Ireland, it is with something like despair that one witnesses these accumulated proofs of the inveteracy of the worst social disorders with which a country was ever cursed. It is difficult to see what remedy the State can apply to such a disease as popular sympathy with homicide, except a rigorous enforcement of the penalties of the law; but there are other moral agencies besides those of legislation and police, and it is right to remind those who wield them of responsibilities which are, it may be feared, very imperfectly felt. It is, of course, inconceivable that the Roman Catholic bishops and clergy of Ireland can view with complacency a state of feeling which would disgrace a Pagan community; yet it is impossible to doubt that they might do a vast deal more than they have ever done yet to impress their docile flocks with the fact that their Church regards murder as a deadly sin. For many purposes, the power of the priesthood over the Irish mind is enormous, and it would be creditable to them to employ it, not merely in returning Ultramontane candidates to Parliament, and collecting Peter's Pence, but in promoting the better observance of the Sixth Commandment. We only echo the language of Baron Deasy and other Roman Catholic Judges when we express the wish that "those who have a nearer and more intimate and it is right to remind those who wield them of responsi the wish that "those who have a nearer and more intimate "access to the people" than the secular ministers of the law, would energetically exert at least a portion of their influence in

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discouraging murder. They have the ear of the peasantry; they are not unskilled in the arts of popular appeal; they perfectly well know how to bring an almost irresistible spiritual force to bear on any point that they are really anxious to carry; and it does not seem too much to expect from them that they should make it part of their business to teach Tipperary that it is wrong to screen assassins from the officers of justice. It is possible that the object might be only partially attained, but they would at any rate wipe away a very grave reproach from their religion by honestly making the attempt. We only wish them to show the same uncompromising zeal in discountenancing crime and its abettors which they are at all times ready to display in the pursuit of ends of questionable or, at all events, subordinate utility. A few weeks ago, the Roman Catholic archbishops and bishops of the sister country assembled in synod at Dublin, under Dr. Cullen's presidency, and put forth a very vigorous manifesto in favour of the Pope, the Tories, Tenant-right, and sectarian schools, with a few mild phrases at the end deprecating agrarian crime, not without a hint that it is half excused by the "many injustices" of Imperial legislation. We have no right to ask them to alter the political part of their programme; but it is permissible to suggest that the first principles of religion and morality are at least as important as the distinctive objects of Ultramontane agitation. It were vain to hope that human life will be held sacred in the eyes of the Irish peasantry so long as their highest ecclesiastical authorities are lukewarm in denouncing organized murder.

THE VOLUNTEER COMMISSION.

WE believe that the Report of the Volunteer Commission will be found as satisfactory as the members of the force could possibly have anticipated. The evidence given by the commanding officers and others who were examined was remarkably unanimous, and has received the attention which the great exertions of many of those who have borne the burden of the day fairly deserved. None but those who have been actively engaged in establishing and maintaining a corps of Volunteers have any idea of the labour and expense which the undertaking has involved. At the outset, when a well-grounded suspicion of the designs of the Emperor of the French stimulated the patriotism of all classes, the means of organizing effective regiments seemed to be as abundant as the recruits who were ambitious of serving in the ranks; but it was not in the nature of things that mere outsiders, who had none of the inducements which kept the rank and file steady to their purpose, should long continue a support without which the strength or the efficiency of the Volunteer corps was almost certain to languish. It was one of the best features of the movement from the very first, that the pith and substance of the force was made up from no exclusive source. The great mass of the Volunteers have been, and still are, essentially poor men. Clerks and shopmen were found willing to give up their scanty leisure to the cause, and to pay out of their limited incomes sums which they could often ill spare to equip themselves in the first instance. Those who were unable to do this were largely assisted by the contributions of the commissioned officers; but the experience of the last year has shown that the tax was becoming too heavy to be much longer sustained, and that, without some aid from the public purse, the whole organization was in some danger of falling to pieces. Altogether, the outlay of the Volunteers has probably not fallen short of 1,000,000.; and with this proof of earnestness in their self-imposed duties, it would have been impossible for the Gov

The principle on which the Commission seem to have acted is, that the Volunteer should be charged with nothing beyond his own personal expenses. The annual expenditure required to keep up the establishment of a Volunteer battalion, even with the partial aid already given in the payment of adjutants and drill-sergeants, varies from 500l. to 700l. a-year. Hitherto, this demand has, in most instances, been raised by annual subscriptions from the members of the force, supplemented to a trifling extent by donations extracted from the waning enthusiasm of wealthier neighbours; and no one, however anxious he may be to preserve the honour of the Volunteers as an unpaid army, will consider it necessary that they should submit to a further tax, beyond their own inevitable expenses, for the privilege of joining in the defence of the country. We do not apprehend that there will be any difference of opinion as to the propriety of the recommendations which the Commission has made. The contributions in kind which are

already furnished by the Government will of course be editinued, and every battalion will have an adjutant and a dvill sergeant provided at the public expense, together with the allowance of ammunition which has hitherto been supplied. The additional assistance which it is proposed to give is intended to be in the form of a money payment to the commanding officers in proportion to the effective strength of their corps. It will be understood that the money is to go to the general funds of the corps, and that the Volunteers are not to be offered anything which bears the smallest resemblance to individual payment, which they themselves would be the most eager to repudiate as an insult to their patriotism. When the details of the matter came to be sifted, it was found that this was the only feasible course to be adopted. Contributions in kind were proposed by many of the friends of the Volunteers who were examined; but the impossibility of determining what should be given to this or that regiment forced the Commission upon the alternative of a money contribution. The circumstances of different corps are so varied that no rigid rules could have been devised which would have done equal justice to all. If, on the other hand, the concession of this or that indulgence had been made to depend on inquiries into each particular case, the inconvenience and delay would have been so intolerable that requisitions would often have been abandoned for the sake of avoiding the wearisome correspondence with the War-Office which would almost unavoidably have resulted.

In the face of all these difficulties, the Commissioners have, we think rightly, decided that Government aid ought to be given in the form of a subsidy, and that the amount should depend on no other conditions than the strength and efficiency of each battalion or company, as fixed by the returns of commanding officers, checked by the annual inspection which every corps is required to undergo. The test of results, which was proposed to be introduced into the educational system of the country, is far more applicable to volunteer regiments, for it is certain that no commanding officer can produce an efficient corps at inspection without having kept it well up to the mark by steady drill and careful supervision. The amount of this, which may be called the drill-subsidy, is proposed to be put at 12, per head; but it was sufficiently brought out by the evidence that this sum would not suffice to cover all the necessary current expenses of a well-managed corps. In order to fill up the remaining void, and at the same time to promote the most neglected part of the volunteer's training, a further contribution of half the amount is offered for every volunteer who makes himself master of his weapon, and proves his efficiency by passing the musketry classes according to the army regulations. The wisdom of this proposal will commend itself at once to all who have been practically connected with the Volunteer movement. Rifle practice is not only essential to the completeness of the force, but almost to its very existence. Defects in drill may, on an emergency, be very quickly remedied, and a battalion of a thousand untrained men could be made tolerably handy and serviceable in the course of a few months, or even weeks. But shooting can only be taught by the individual training of each rifleman; and it is only as the fruit of years of preliminary practice that we can hope to see the whole force of the Volunteers converted into an army of marksmen. Besides this, every day makes it more evident that the cohesion of the force, in

It may be presumed that the Government will not hesitate to act upon the recommendations of the Commission, without waiting for the formal sanction of a vote of the House of Commons. And we may probably congratulate the Volunteers on having obtained relief from current expenses on a scale which will leave little beyond mere luxuries to be defrayed out of their own pockets. It will not be supposed that the subsidy which is offered will support the magnificent bands which a few of the Volunteer corps have organized;

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but though a band of some kind cannot be regarded as a superfluity, it would be too much to expect the Government to gratify the fastidious tastes of musical amateurs. These corps which can afford it may still indulge in the luxury of fancy bands; but the State will have done its part if it furnishes the means for all that can fairly be called necessary for the efficiency of a Volunteer corps. This, so far as annual expenses are concerned, will, we think, be done by the contribution which the Commissioners recommend; but there still remains one element of expense which, more than any other, has baffled the exertions of Volunteer corps. Now that good shooting is made to enter into the official test of efficiency, it is more than ever important that the opportunities of practice should be brought fairly within the reach of all, of practice should be brought fairly within the reach of all, instead of being limited, as they now are (in London especially), to those who have money to spend and time to waste. Every corps ought to have a butt of full regulation-range within easy distance of head-quarters, and it is scarcely an exaggeration to say that no London corps enjoys this advantage. It would not be difficult for the War Office to construct a range which would suffice for nearly all the Volunteers in London, and would almost pay for its construction by the saying of expense would almost pay for its construction by the saving of expense which is now incurred in moving the troops of the regular army to distant stations for the sake of rifle practice. The Woolwich ground is neither commodious enough nor accessible enough to answer the purpose, and it is to be hoped that, both in London and in the neighbourhood of other great towns which need the accommodation, the construction of suitable ranges will be commenced, to enable the Volunteers to avail themselves fully of the assistance which is offered only to those corps who can show a creditable class-list. this, the money payments which are proposed will in great measure fail in their effect. With it, the Volunteers will have all the means which they can ever desire of maintaining and increasing the efficiency to which they have already at-

DULNESS AS A SENSATION.

THERE are few things which show a more candid mind than a frank confession of dulness. It is an admission of occasional vacuity, of self-insufficiency, which very few can bring themselves to make, and which, when made, is not always received with the humanity and tenderness such ingenuousness deserves. People who never feel weary of their own company have a contempt for those who do, and often a very ill-founded contempt; for, in the first place, the difference may be one only of circumstances — some people are much more exposed to dulness than others — and, in the next, satisfaction with our own company is wise or foolish according to the grounds on which it is founded. To be ever dull is, no doubt, a mark of human infirmity. For this exquisite mechanism of mind, thought, intelligence, ever to collapse, to lose spring doubt, a mark of human infirmity. For this exquisite mechanism of mind, thought, intelligence, ever to collapse, to lose spring and vigour, to suffer cold obstruction, should be a check to our pride of reason. But it is only felt to be so when our solitude is thus visited. To profess oneself dull in society where others are amused is a piece of pretension, a sort of boast, as implying a tacit superiority. But, in fact, this too argues deficiency and absence of power, often as great as the other. True vigour of mind and body is never dull, and can turn all painless conditions of being to an element of delight. If people are prone to feel dull, the scene of their dulness is more an affair of temperament, or at most of training, than of intellect. training, than of intellect.

of their dulness is more an affair of temperament, or at most of training, than of intellect.

We need not explain that the dulness we speak of is not any inherent quality of the mind, but a matter of feeling. It, indeed, implies a certain quickness of apprehension always to know when we are dull. There are existences so void of interesting, elevating, or inspiring circumstances that only a dull head and a dull heart could reconcile themselves to them; but the leaders of such lives make them what they are, would not change them if they could, are content with them, and value themselves on that content. Supposed immunity from dulness, then, may proceed from all sorts of causes, creditable or the reverse. It may arise from activity of mind, fulness of thought, an uninterrupted stream of occupation—which is always the assumed cause—or from slowness, apathy, and a dead sterile imagination. Thus, a man may never be dull because he contains everything within himself, or because his heavy intelligence is on an exact level with his monotonous existence. Certain it is that there are many who avow themselves perfectly satisfied with their own company whose company gives others very little satisfaction—who, if they are not dull, for anything we can see, ought to be. It is an extremely happy thing in such cases that there is this just balance; for the fact is, it is only very lively or engaging people who can own themselves dull with impunity—who can find sympathy, or even toleration, for their infirmity; and this for the obvious reason that in their case alone society is the gainer by it. Persons who are dull in both senses of the word at once are just the heaviest load social life can be burdened with. But charming people are the more charming because they are not independent of their fellow creatures—cannot pretend to the pride of seclusion—and are thus driven

as well as led by their nature, to show their best, conscious of some hidden far-off bugbear which haunts the long hours of uncongenial solitude, brightening the social scene by the contrast of its gloom. No doubt much may be done by practice and self-discipline to overcome this weakness, and everyone, if he is wise, will struggle against it. But there is, all the same, an inherent difference between man and man which no effort can do away, and the man who wants companionship will always stand in a different relation to the world from the man who is independent of it. What we argue is that it may be incompleteness, not inferiority; for, wherever the affections predominate, men will be dull when they cannot exercise them, and wherever the mind and intellect are worked by fits and starts, as some people are obliged to work them—effort alternating with the indolence of reaction—these intervals will be subject to conscious dulness.

We use the word dulness because our language has no other, but it is a vast deal easier to feel dull than to know what dulness is so far as to define it. Our classical writers all treat dulness as a quality. Men are dull, and are loathed by the wits accordingly. We do not for a moment assume any of our readers to be dull—it is as much as we dare suppose, in this active—minded age, that any of them even feel dull under the ignominious condition of not being absolutely all in all, each to himself. Johnson recognises the word in our sense, but he is obliged to depart from his rule and furnish his own example:—"Dull," "not exhibarating; not delightful; as, to make dictionaries is dull work." But this does not get at the bottom of the thing. Dull work, dull leisure, dull company, dull solitude—what is the common element in them all? Theologians tell us that our nature shrinks from absolute disembodiment—that the spiritual part of us recoils from the idea of bare exposure of its essence, of being turned inte space shivering, houseless, homeless. If we analyze dulness, there is something of th

Better than such discourse doth silence long,
Long barren silence, square with my desire;
To sit without emotion, hope, or aim,
In the loved presence of my cottage fire,
And listen to the flapping of the flame,
Or kettle chirping its faint undersong.

This is a picture of comfort—this is being at home with our household gods about us. Here the lazy unoccupied spirit misses nothing. When people feel dull, there is a sense of deprivation and exposure. We are without something that answers to the mind for what clothing and shelter are to the body. We are weak, open to aggression; we have lost something; our completeness, our organization is affected. Time ceases to flow in this state, and prolongs itself into an uncertain sort of eternity which we are incapable of measuring. Immersed in dulness, even the state, and prolongs itself into an uncertain sort of eternity which we are incapable of measuring. Immersed in dulness, even the future is too far off to excite hope; for dulness has in its very nature a touch of perpetuity. If we find ourselves, for example, in for four hours' perfectly dull talk, from which there is no escape, what good does it do to say, It is only four hours, What are four hours compared to a lifetime—and so on? We are not in a state to estimate the difference. Life itself will end, and we accept this truth more readily than that these four hours will, which nothing seems to shorten. Solitary dulness is, no doubt, a more awful and more mysterious infliction than social dulness can ever be, but the majority of mankind are not exposed to this extreme pressure on mind and nerve—they are not thrown for long periods utterly upon themselves. It comes to most of us in the form of uncongenial company and occupation. Whenever the mind suffers from a suspense of its voluntary processes too long, we are dull, as in protracted or mistimed instruction or amusement. We are dull in scenes which make demands on our interest and intelligence that in protracted or mistimed instruction or amusement. We are dull in scenes which make demands on our interest and intelligence that we cannot meet. We are dull when our mind, or one side of our mind, is defenceless, has lost its usual and necessary support, whether that support be habit—a word in itself conveying all our meaning—or the intervention of fresh ideas from without, for the want of which a painful void is felt. We are dull, whether we miss the familiar scenes, faces, voices, views of things on which we are wont to lean, or are shut out from that current of externalific and thought through which the raind derivactive recent

Habit, in a sense, is the great resource against dulness. If we live long enough, we are never dull in doing what we are accustomed to do, and hence arises the little sympathy that age often shows

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to youth in this matter. Youth has acquired no confirmed habits. It is not desirable that a boy should be content always to spend one day like another—to find his book all-sufficients, or his work or play all-sufficients, or his friends in finding him fitting change and diversion—something like the hicking, struggling, vivacious baby in arms which will not allow itself to be forgotten. But pavents who are proud of this infantine resilessness are often little lenient to the sufferings of dulness at no ider stage proceeding from precisely the same cause. Unquestionably it is very convenient to others, and in a degree a sign of strength in the boy himself, to be sufficient for his own anusement, to have contracted habits of some sort early; but those who play the most active and stirring part in the world—practical men, men of action—have needed variety in their youth, and have been dall without it, conspicuously and energetically dull, not "listless yet restless," like the worn poet in the same case, but powerful to fifl the abborred void by some congenial solace.

But habit—the panacea, the refuge, the protector—is so entirely dependent on circumstances that there is no dulness so pitiable or so incurable as that which proceeds from the breaking-up of an accustomed course of life—the dulness which proceeds from change, whether self-chosen or inevitable. Poor Charles Lamb, always ingenuous, how frank is he in the confession of his own delusions on this point the who fretted over his compulsory monotonous life of thirty-five years of work, defied the chains of habit, and proclaimed that "positively the best thing a man can do is nothing, and next to that, perhaps, good works," and had his wish of idleness granted to him. If any ma

MANNERS MAKE THE MAN.

WE have lately stumbled on two compendious little works, entitled, The Gentleman's and Lady's Manual of Modern Etiquette, which profess to embody the latest edition of the code of manners observed in "the highest circles." Glancing at the preface, we found to our horror that to be ignorant of the subject-matter of these minute volumes was "necessarily to exhibit valgarity at the table, clownishness in the drawing-room, and general unfitness for the society of the refined;" and furthermore, that here were set forth "certain fixed laws, observed by all classes claiming a respectable position." Inexpressibly shocked at the awful consequences we must have incurred by remaining ignorant of this authoritative exposition of the edicts of fashion, we lost no time in perusing it, with the faint hope that haply our instincts might have saved us from some of the social enormi-

ties so sweepingly denounced, and that in the eyes of society we might hitherto have appeared as, at any rate, a favourable

we might hitheric have appeared as, at any rate, a favourable specimen of the savage.

The Gentleman's Manuel begins by setting out the ceremonial to be observed on the occasion of a morning visit. And the exhaustive nature of the treatise will be recognised by the first direction, which is this, "If you nlight from a carriage, endeavour to do so in a graceful manner." Our author has evidently a salutary fear of the London quamis before his eyes, for he adds, "Inattention to this matter has subjected many to ridicale," Visits are of two kinds, for purposes of congratulation and of condolence. We do not pretend to undorstand the reasons which of course exist for the following caution with reference to the former: — "Visits of congratulation must be always made before dimer." Much more intelligible is this rule for a visit of condolence, which breathes the very spirit of the "miligated affliction department" at Messrs. Pugh's or Jay's: — "Take care to appear in a sober dress; and if the occasion be the death of a person even slightly related to you, go in mourning—deep or otherwise—according to the degree of relationship." Here is an exotoric precept applicable to all visits, the full force of which the British housemand will appreciate: — "The very careful to scrape your feet, and to use the doc-must upon entering, if the streets be in a mudy sound to will you must be necessary to the program of dinner is minutely laid down. "To married ladies," we read, "should be conceded preference as to the order of votation, and if it is wished to be very formal, but those of highest rank be taken out first," The "order of rotation" can only mean that in the highest circles the ceremonial is to go in state down the front stairs, then to descend the front stairs a second time, and so on ad isfinition—clearly a very aristocratic proceeding, because it would result in a dinner with his Grace Duke Humphry. "The host offers his arm to the principal lady "—that is, if he wishes to be very formal—"and leads the way." "Immediately

is offered the alternative of being deafened by the cornet-a-piston, or sufficated for want of air. Besides, what if a room should be so utterly abnormal as to have two doors? where would the top be then? This is a casus omissus to which we respectfully invite the author's attention. "In the Schottische, Walts, and Polka, be very careful to avoid encircling your partner's waist, except in the lightest manner, and exercise extreme caution to prevent pressing too closely upon her; avoid pressing her hand tightly." Soft pressure, it would seem, is allowable, and does not entail any "unitiness for the society of the refined." But no further liberty would be tolerated in "respectable company;" and we may charitably infer, therefore, that "in the highest circles" a similar propriety is observed.

we may charitably infer, therefore, that "in the highest circles" a similar propriety is observed.

Hitherto, we have been drinking in wisdom from a stern, rigid Mentor. In the remarks on "Supper," we feel at once that we are listening to a man and a brother. "After attending to the wants of their fair partners, the gentlemen generally tacitly agree to stand and wait until the ladies have retired (which they should always do after a moderate refreshment), and then to sit down together to supper," of which they may, by implication, partake immoderately. Here we have the voice of nature bursting artificial restraints. Great is lobster salad, for it fairly triumphs over etiquette in the affections of this modern Polonius.

a moderate refreshment), and then to sit down together to supper, of which they may, by implication, partake immoderately. Here we have the voice of nature bursting artificial restraints. Great is lobster salad, for it fairly triumphs over etiquetic in the affections of this modern Polonius.

Of this manual, as of some other books, it might be said that it contains many things that are new, and many things that are true; but what is new is not true, and what is true is not new. No one, for instance, would dream of disputing the following proposition:—"Some knowledge of passing events is almost indispensable to those who go much into society;" or this—"Do not speak so much as a single sentence in company in a language not understood by those present;" or this—"To take notice of children is generally to render yourself agreeable to their parents." Again, the most unsophisticated amongst us knows that "letters should always be prepaid;" that "the fiels, teeth, and nails should be cleased at regular and fixed intorvals;" and that "the nails should never be permitted to grow to an offensive length." We have long ago arrived at the conclusion that "those who have weak eyes should wear coloured spectacles;" and the instinct of self-preservation would forbid any disregard of the following rule:—"If you use false hair, be careful that it is all of one shade." Nor do we require to be reminded that "it has an undignified and somewhat thief-like look to turn the eyes down whenever you are spoken to." The following caution, too, we regard as somewhat superfluous:—"When a marriage contract is to be drawn up, it is well to ascertain that all parties concerned agree to all the particulars set forth before the formal meeting for signing the deeds. This will prevent much unseemly discussion in the presence of the bride-elect." But we find in this volume many injunctions and many subtle distinctions calculated to make us feel actually and what prevent much unseemly discussion in the presence of the bride with the result of the pa

in the remarks on "dress." If she is so unfortunate as to be deformed, she is advised to conceal it by "attention to the make of that portion of her habiliments immediately connected with the misshapen part." If her features be large, she is to arrange her hair in large masses. She is never to appear anxious about the safety of any part of her attire in company. She is soletingly warned not to compress her feet into shoes too small, or her hands into gloves of a size less than proper for them. "Such an attempt causes the 'member' to appear larger, its uncomfortably tight appearance attracting attention; besides which, the feet are sure to be injured, and, by the formation of corns, to become larger and more unshapely the longer the course is persisted in." And lastly, let her attend to the following oracular utterance, in which we could have wished that the condemnation of crinoline had been more explicit:—"At a ball, you will pass and repass during its progress the other dancers many times. Hear this in mind, and dress, accordingly, in a costume as light and close-fitting as is consistent with the fashion."

One is tempted to ask, with whom can the author of this won-

progress the other dancers many times. Bear this in mind, and dress, accordingly, in a costume as light and close-fitting as is consistent with the fashion."

One is tempted to ask, with whom can the author of this wonderful manual have lived? and who are the lunatics who regulate their deportment by the rules it contains? Who in the world is our anonymous instructor? We do not hesitate to say that we have penetrated his disguise. Every item in this catalogue of the proprieties smells of cast-off plush. It is our old friend Jeames, whiling away the hours of his retirement from active work by dilating on the Genteel to a circle of admiring Licensed Victuallers. There is a certain psychological value in a travesty of society regarded from the point of view of a thoroughly vulgar and illiterate mind. But there is something more of which a book of this kind is the expression. It symbolizes the essentially snobbish side of English character. The demand for such information as this impudent imposture pretends to give is created by the morbid craving which almost every class evinces to ape its betters, and do as is done "in the higher circles." Mrs. Smith wants to know the dinner arrangements observed in a nobleman's family, in order that, when she next entertains Mrs. Jones, she may astonish that lady's weak mind by imitating them as closely as circumstances will permit. The hard-worked maid of the Smith establishment does just the same thing, when she waggles about the kitchen in a hoop which she fondly imagines to be a faithful copy of Missis's style of dress. There is something almost pathetic, in an Aristotelian point of view, in this latest synopsis of the social virtues. The points which strike an ordinary reader as most ridiculous would save it from ridicule in the eyes of a philosopher. The injunctions to cleanliness and a calm temper betray something like a faint and dim notion of the principles on which true courtesy rests. They indicate a sort of twilight consciousness that, after all, it consists in somet

THE ARCHÆOLOGICAL INSTITUTE AT WORCESTER.

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The recent meeting of the Archæological Institute at Worcester has been pronounced, by common consent, to be one of the best that it has ever held. Both Peterborough and Worcester have been vast improvements over the utter mismanagement of the Bath and Gloucester meetings; and Worcester has had the advantage over Peterborough of being much more largely attended. In fact, this meeting has been successful in every way, and not the least in coming in a week when excursions were neither hindered by rain nor diminished in their enjoyment by extreme heat. The city of Worcester is one of great historic celebrity, but it is not itself rich in antiquities. Besides the later battle which gives it its most popular fame, Worcester is a spot which ought to be venerable in the eyes of every Englishman, as the place where the writs were issued for the famous Parliament in which borough members first appeared. The position of the city, washed by the Severn, and with the noble range of the Malvern Hills at a few miles distance, is worthy of finer buildings than Worcester has to show. A second-rate cathedral, one of the least impressive in England in a general view, and a modern spire of unusual elegance, are all that Worcester presents at first sight. Nor will a more diligent search discover very much more. The parish churches are poor, and mostly modern, and there are but few ancient houses of any value. The only ancient building of any importance, unconnected with the Cathedral, is the Commandery, which retains a nearly perfect hall of the Knights of St. John—a very good example of timber architecture. In all this Worcester affords a marked contrast to Bristol, Norwich, and Coventry. The Cathedral itself seems at first sight to be one half quite new, and the other half old work of the poorest kind. The west front, without so much as a door, is probably the worst in England. Inside

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however, there is much that is both curious and beautiful, and the attached conventual buildings afford a still richer store for the antiquary. The palace contains ancient portions, but it is not striking to any one who knows either Alby and Beauvais, or Wells and St. David's.

Moncester, hewever, if in itself inferior to some other cities, is an admirable place for an archaeological meeting, as being the source of a region most rich both in historical asociations and in admirable place for an archaeological meeting, as being the source of a region most rich both in historical asociations and in admirable place of them. As the last, and for a time the decisive, battle in a great civil war. In each case the defeated party proved in the end victorious. The liberties of England seemed for a moment to have died at Evesham with Simon of Montfort. They revived and were matured by the visidom of the very prince who overthrew their founder. The hopes of the Lancastrian party seemed utterly crushed at Tewkesbury; but the crimes of the last Yorkist King turned the national feeling the other way, and the vertice given at Tewkesbury was roversed at Eosworth. The defeat of Worcester made Charles II. an exile from all his kingdoms. He was restored when he could come back as the choice of Englishmen, and not as an invader forced upon England by the Scots. The fights of Evesham and Worcester found zealous illustrators in the course of the meeting. The intermediate, and certainly less interesting, battle of Tewkesbury was left without a prophet.

In the primewal and the Roman way there does not seem to be much in the city or its neighbourhood. The Institute visited a fine camp on the Herefordshire Beacon, one of the best points of the Malvern range is, in point of seenery, the natural boundary of England and Wales. Few contrasts are more striking than the wide plain of the middland counties to the east—looking, from that height, like a dead flat, which it assuredly is not—and the long ranges of hills, with a few distant mountain-peals rising beyond them, which lie to the west. Malvern itself is essentially an outpost of the middland counties to the east—looking, from that height, like a dead flat, which it is assuredly is not—and the long ranges of hills, with a few sevent location and the proper seal

Mr. M. H. Bloxam, though not very readable, always contain valuable facts. The excursions were well planned, and probably embraced everything in the neighbourhood that could well be seen. In this they formed a marked contrast to the absurdities of Bath and Gloucester. A little of the old vice of hurry now and then reappeared, but not enough really to spoil anything. Though the management of the Institute is wonderfully improved, it might be improved still further if its managers would condescend to study and follow the far better arrangements of some of the local societies. The Museum, too, was unusually rich, varied, and interesting. Pictures, autographs, seals, weapons—all were there; and, as became the place, there was a large display of what is now-a-days called "Ceramic" art, where the workmanship of Worcester and of Limoges might be compared together. But, among many far more striking objects, nothing, perhaps, spoke more to the heart of a real lover of English history than a few relics of Walter of Cantelupe, the patriot Bishop of Worcester, who said mass and received the confession of Earl Simon and his friends before the fight of Evesham.

more striking objects, nothing, pernaps, spoke more to the mean of a real lover of English history than a few relics of Walter of Cantelupe, the patriot Bishop of Worcester, who said mass and received the confession of Earl Simon and his friends before the fight of Evesham.

We thoroughly congratulate the Institute if we are right in our surmise that even its old and inveterate sin of flunkeyism is at last beginning slightly to give way. To be sure we had the old story of "Noblemen and Gentlemen giving sanction and encouragement." A man must have the mind of a gentleman-usher who cannot see the grotesque absurdity of Professor Willis or Dr. Guest needing the "sanction" or "snouragement" of anybody. As always happens, many of the sanctioners and encouragers did nothing at all; but the proportion of the inhabitants of both the city and the county who took an active and intelligent share in the proceedings was unusually large. The Institute should always cordially welcome the help of such men; but it should not degrade itself by asking for any man's "sanction" or "patronage." We ground our hope of reformation on the fact that the Worcester list of patrons amounted only to two, and that those two, as it happened, formed pretty well a reductio ad absurdum of the system of patronage. The two were, the Bishop of the Diocese and the Lord-Lieutenant of the County. The Bishop of Worcester was not present, and took no notice of the meeting at all. We do not in the least blame him for this. If the Bishop has no taste for archiveology, the Institute has no right to expect him to come, but then the Institute ought not to stoop to ask for his patronage. The Lord-Lieutenant, on the other hand, was insulted by being called a patron. Lord Lyttelton was something much better than a "Patron." He was an efficient and agreeable President of the meeting; and every one must see the grotesque incongraity of the same being Patron and President—that is, of his patronizing himself. We do not know whether any subtle distinction is drawn, a

wonder at his wishing to retire into private life. But why not give him a permanent successor—or a successor for several years—at any rate, a successor chosen, like himself, for merit? Will the Institute bear with us if we venture on the daring question, Need the President always be a lord? Let lords have their fair chance—let them even have a cateris paribus preference; but surely that is enough. The British Association has chosen as its President for this year one of the most illustrious members of the Institute, in the person of Professor Willis. We really do not see why the study of archeeology cannot afford to be as democratic as the study of physical science.

THE PRINCE CONSORT'S MEMORIAL

COUNCILS of war never fight; and though Holy Writ says,
"In the multitude of councillors there is safety," yet, as
Walter Raleigh remarked on the text to Queen Elizabeth, "I
have heard learned men say, that the safety spoken of is for the
physicians, not for the patient." The highest authority, on a wellknown occasion, when advisers were called in, or called themselves
in, asked, "Who is this that darkeneth counsel by words without
knowledge?" We should be sorry to apply too precisely such
high condemnation to the Report of the Committee of Advise
who were summoned to tender recommerdations to Her Majesty

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on the details of the Prince Consort Memorial; but the first thought which suggests itself in perusing it is of all those texts which speak of multiplying vain words. Verbosa et grandis epistola venit from Lords Derby and Clarendon, the Lord Mayor, and the President of the Royal Academy. The Seven Wise Men of art deliver themselves of much solemn talk. General Grey replies in oracular language; invitations are addressed to the most famous artists of the day to offer their assistance; and, after all, we are nearly as wise as we were before. There is a great deal of advice in three or four columns of sonorous language; but through the infinite haze of words nothing substantial and tangible.

of advice in three or four columns of sonorous language; but through the infinite haze of words nothing substantial and tangible, but an obvious desire to evade rather than to face a difficulty.

It will be remembered that, when the obelisk scheme was found to be impracticable—first, because there was no single stone to be quarried, and next because there was no money to buy the stone, if it could be obtained—Her Majesty, with great propriety, placed herself in the hands of a Committee of Advice. The Committee consisted of Four Notables, and the Four Notables immediately associated themselves with the Seven Experts. We now have the result in a Report which, we much fear, reports nothing. From first to last there appears to have been no clear and precise understanding what the Memorial was to be; and the dead lock which existed from the beginning seems destined to continue to the end. The character of the Memorial must be determined by the amount of the subscriptions; and the amount of the subscriptions must depend on the nature of the Memorial. Cause is inextricably locked up in effect; and effect must depend upon cause. But cause is not yet defined; cause

he; and the dead lock which existed from the beginning secundestimed to continue to the end. The character of the Memorial must be determined by the amount of the subscriptions; and the amount of the subscriptions must depend on the nature of the Memorial. Cause is inextricably locked up in effect; and effect must depend upon cause. But cause is not yet defined; cause rules effect; and effect is undevloped in cause which is not known. People will not subscribe till they are assured what they are going to subscribe for; and it is impossible for artists to design who are ignorant whether to calculate upon a purse of 50,0004, or 150,0004, or 150,0004, or 150,0004, or 150,0004, or 150,0004, or 150,0004. To do them only justice, the Committee of Advice have left the matter open enough. They have come forward with what they call a plan, which has at least the negative merit of vagueness and indecision. All along, there was a substantial and evident difference of opinion as to the real character of the Memorial. The term Memorial was chosen, unhappily, and, as it seems, for the very purpose of leaving that one question open which should have been closed, and closed finally, from the very first. Was the Memorial to be simply Monumental? or was it to be—to coin a word—Institutional? Esther of these objects is intelligible at its first announcement, and the last is capable of some explanation. As far as we can understand the Committee, they seem desirous to combine the two objects, which are, we believe, entirely irreconcilable both on the score of cost and of compatibility. We say so the rather because, in the correspondence embodied in the Heport, the two ideas find each their representative; and in presenting them, though the advocate of each adverts to the other plan, each strongly enforces his own, and treads but lightly over the other. General Gray's letter enlarges on the advantages of the Institution scheme, and adverts very slightly to the Monument, and though they are seen and are a supplied to productive indus

in some measure of the comprehensive idea which they desired," and which, with an amiable reliance on their own powers of language, they think, they have managed "to embody."

in some measure of the comprehensive idea which they desired, and which, with an amiable reliance on their own powers of language, they think, they have managed "to embody."

Of course, it may be our own fault that we do not understand all this; and we may be very dull and slow in apprehending how a Hall in which the Social Science delegates and Women's Rights advocates may meet for their annual divine talk fulfils all these solems aspirations; but there is one very practical and common sense aspect of the matter which seems at once to have presented itself to the seven architects who took an unsentimental, not to say vulgar, view of the case. What will it cost? It is of no use discussing our coat till we have got the money in haud and the cloth to cut it from. "There are many reasons why the Memorial might be created with propriety and advantage in conjunction with such an institution, if the funds were already provided:" but, as the funds are not provided, the seven artists skip over this quaking ground with hasty step, and proceed to discuss the character of the Monument. To which sounder footing we shall accompany them. All that is at present available for the Memorial is a sum of between 50,000l. and 60,000l., and this is not, as the architects remark, more than sufficient for a Monument. The Hall may, therefore, well remain in those clouds from which it can scarcely be said, even in conception, to have emerged. The artists dismiss the obelisk — especially, and with contempt, do they dismiss an obelisk of many blocks—and dismiss a column; and, in a sentence which is positively unintelligible, they appear to dismiss a Gothic cross, by far the most suitable, elegant, appropriate, and suggestive of monuments. They say that "the objections to an obelisk, a column, or any erection of that description, apply also to structures in any style of architecture which would assume either of those forms." Mr. G. G. Scott, to whom the public naturally looks for some really good design, has announced that the enigmatic se mittee of Advice, and a limited competition is announced, to which the seven consulted and advising architects themselves are invited, with the addition of the two sons of the late Sir Charles Barry. To Messrs. Tite, Smirke, Scott, Pennethorne, Donaldson, Philip Hardwicke, Digby Wyatt, Charles and Edward Barry, we are to look then for designs, both for Hall and Monument, to be sent in on December 1; and, as it is understood that three or four of these gentlemen will decline to compete, the race will be substantially between Classicism and Gothicism, with about three Hyatti and three Curistii on either side

of these gentlemen will decline to compete, the race will be substantially between Classicism and Gothicism, with about three Horatii and three Curiatii on either side.

We can scarcely say that we look with much confidence to this solution of the difficulty, chiefly because it is no solution at all. What was wanted from the Committee of Advice was to decide between two separate ideas. They have decided by the clumsy device of adopting both. The result will be the non-success of either. In endeavouring to combine two incommensurable objects the failure of each is pretty certain. And to ask artists to design for two distinct, if not opposed, objects, and to divide an unknown sum, in unknown proportions, for undefined purposes, is all but a mockery; while to ask them to compete without fixing upon a common ground of estimate is unjust, and to require them to marry the utilitarian to the sethetic without directions as to separate uses in the settlement, is almost an affront to common sense as well 2s to art. When one design is sent in on the calculation of 50,000l., and another on that of 150,000l., we foresee a professional wrangle and a public wrong. If, as is plain on the face of it, the present Report is not final, we might almost hope for a supplementary one enjoining the artists competing to estimate on a cost of (say) 100,000l.—which, if the design is a good one, will certainly be forthcoming for the Monument only, abandoning the Hall or the Institution to the future, and to those who like to give their money to it.

SUNDAY AT THE CRYSTAL PALACE.

ATHER more than four years ago, an attempt was made to improve the financial prospects of the Crystal Palace Company by offering to grant, in exchange for shares, tickets entitling the holders to grantitus admission to the Palace both on weekdays and Sundays. It was objected by a dissentient shareholder that the granting of such admissions on Sundays would be in contravention of a clause in the Company's Charter, which provided "that no person should be admitted to the building or grounds on the Lord's day in consideration of any money payment direct or indirect." On appeal to the Court of Chancery the shareholder's objection was held to be well founded, and the Company was restrained by injunction from issuing tickets in the way proposed. This exposition of the legal effect of the Company's Charter remaining unimpeached, we were rather surprised at receiving as invitation to be present at the Crystal Palace on the occasion of what was called a "Share Clubs' Excursion" on Sunday last The circular letter which accompanied the tickets sent to us stated that the Directors of the Company had granted to the members of the

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Clubs and their friends the privilege of free admission to the Palace and Grounds upon that day. The Committee of the Clubs expressed a confident expectation that order and propriety would mark the conduct of the visitors. They desired that visitors should proceed to the Palace by railway only; and they mentioned that dinners and other refreshments would be obtainable in the Palace, that the 1s. 8d. dinner would be supplied as usual, and that a selection of sacred music would be performed on the great organ in the Centre Transept during the afternoon. The Committee had made the arrangements which they had made as to refreshments "in order that visitors should not leave the Palace to obtain them." They had evidently an uneasy feeling that the eye of the Sabbatarian would be upon them, and they very much preferred that their friends should come down quietly by rail instead of shocking the propriety of Camberwell and adjoining villages by a procession of various vehicles which might have been disposed to halt at every public-house upon its route. The issuing of tickets in this way to "Share Clube" appeared to us a singular and possibly not altogether a safe experiment. We falt some interest to see how it would work, and also a little curiosity to visit the Crystal Palace on a Sunday.

share Clubs upon its route. The issuing of tickets in this way to "Share Clubs" appeared to use a singular and possibly not altogether a safe experiment. We fult some interest to see how it would work, and also a little curiosity to visit the Crystal Palace on s Sunday.

The contrast between the aspect of the Palace on Sunday and on the occasion of some attractive fits was striking, but not wholly novel. Nearly the same sense of solitude may be felt by any one who will remain inside the Palace on a week day when everybody else has gone into the garden to see Bloudin. We doubt, however, whether the Palace ever looks quite so silent and sombre at any other time as it did on that Sunday. The waiters, having nothing else to do, fitted with the girls who dispense refreshments. One of these maidens, being asked for a cup of coffee, required the usual formality of a ticket, forgetting that the youth who should have issued it was engaged in an interesting conversation with herself. The small assemblage of company looked absolutely nothing in that vast building. Perhaps they seemed even fewer than they were, because they were so resolutely well behaved. We could not but confess that the national calamity which the Frenchman supposed had affected London on a Sunday night reasonably be believed to be then weighing upon the spirits of the vicitors to the Crystal Palace. The members of the Share Clubs and their friends did not in general belong to that class of society which can reliove heaviness of demeanour by gaiety of dress. The tones of the grand organ were suitable to the solemnity of the scene. The visitors displayed an amount of order and propriety in their conduct which must have been highly gratifying to the Committee, although an unconcerned spectator might have found it tedious. However, the opportunity was a good one for considering the interest of the suppose of the company which owns it with their performance. One might perhaps have thought, if the c

was supposed to be, with what he himself witnesses at the Crystal Palace, will be as capable as we are of estimating the degree of foresight shown by these projectors. It was determined that the building should form "a palace for the multitude, where, at all times protected from the inclement varieties of our climate, healthful exercise and wholesome recreation should be easily attainable." To raise the enjoyments and amusements of the Eaglish people, and to afford to the inhabitants of London, amidst the beauties of nature, the elevating treasures of art, and the instructive marvels of science, a substitute for the debasing amusements of the town—to blend instruction with pleasure, to educate by the eye, to quicken and purify the taste by the habit of recognising the beautiful—such, in an abridged form, and retrenching some of the grand verbosities of the Guide Book, is the statement which it gives of the intentions of the promoters of the undertaking.

It is a painful duty to contrast with this high-flown programme of intentions the conduct of the Company under the pressure of financial necessity. No doubt the author of the paragraph which refers to "the injurious and debasing amusements of a crowded metropolis," had in view some such place as the Alhambra in Leicester Square. But why should it be supposed to "quicken and purify the taste" more to see Blondin at the Crystal Palace than to see Léotard at the Alhambra? It is stated that on Tuesday last there were 45,000 persons at the Palace, and it may be safely asserted that at 4 o'clock in the afternoon 44,000 of them were watching Blondin, and the remaining 1,000 were eating sandwiches and drinking porter. The Crystal Palace is a very pretty place; the air is pure and the view around it charming; the garden is now fall of lovely flowers; the eating and drinking arrangements are moderately good. It is an agreeable lounge at any time, and it is a convenient place for holding festivals of various kinda, and for exhibiting performances such as that of Blondin,

journey thither. Even on the dullest Sunday the visitor is sure to find amusement in the pages of the Official Guide. Our own taste leads us to consider two hours spent in a dense crewd on a hot day outside the London Bridge station as rather too high a price to pay for seeing Blondin and the fountains. Whether the Directors consider that they are "raising the enjoyments and amusements of the English people" by keeping them struggling and pushing under the burning sun, we cannot say. Some of the crowd evidently thought this confusion very good fun, but then we should, perhaps, have called the persons who so thought "roughs"—persons whose taste had not yet been quickened and purified by the habit of recognising the beautiful, and who, if placed "amidst the trees, flowers, and plants of all countries and of all climates," would probably consider that the time and place were suitable to light a pipe. "amidst the trees, flowers, and plants of all countries and of an climates," would probably consider that the time and place were suitable to light a pipe.

The Guide Book tells us, in its grandiose style, that "it will ever be mentioned to the credit of the English people" that within a fortnight after the issuing of the prospectus of the Company & large number of shares were taken up. It might just as well be mentioned to the credit of the same people that a portion of them ate a large number of pork pies on Sunday last. After describing the building and embellishing of the Palace, the Guide Book expresses the obligations of the Directors to the workmen employed upon it. "To all their due! If the creations of the mind stand paramount in our estimation, let appropriate honour be rendered to the skill of hand and eye"—especially (as should be added) to that of Blondin and the cook. If the author of this Guide Book could have descended from his altitudes on a late occasion, he might have learned that not all the art treasures, and marvels of science, and "mechanical manufactures" of the Crystal Palace—neither the casts of celebrated sculptures, nor the magnificent collection of plants, nor the illustrations of zoology, ethnology, and geology—were worth in popular estimation one of Miss Lydia Thompson's smiles.

THE STEPHENSON WINDOW.

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THE demand for a national Valhalla is become one of the crying wants of artistic England. We have before had occasion to call attention to that demand; but the Stephenson "Window" is a stronger case, as appealing to a wider range of sympathies offended and antipathies aroused, than has yet occurred. France has had for half a century its Panthéon, the history of which illustrates its own. Built, or designed, as a Charch, and dedicated to St. Geneviève, it was diverted in the "Age of Reason" to be a receptacle of all remains that were deemed worthy of national, as distinct from local, monuments, and adopted on its front the legend aux grands hommes la patrie reconnaissante. So it stood till the last political revolution, but it has suffered reconversion to Christianity under the present empire—

Rursus et in veterem fato revoluta figuram -Rursus et in voteren into revolute instant. Westminster Abbey has been the shrine of a continuous past, torn by no political convulsions such as could change its name or nature. The anarchy of art has, however, wrought its widest wonders there. To walk down the nave, you might suppose

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it had gone through an "Age of Unrenson," as distinct in its features as that which Pantheonized one of the noblest seedesiastical structures in Paris. The portentous freaks of sculpture which disfigure it are too well known to need recital, and too familian to provoke remark from any one save foreign visitors, or "cousins" at once Beotian and estabetic. We cannot wish back again the space occupied by Triton and Britannia, and by the heroes of the periwig and the togs, by the marble flags and drums, tridents, seawed, and cannon, nor the hundreds of thousands of pounds which they cost. Were that space now available, and that money now in hand, he would be a bold man who should propose so to occupy the one and spend the other. But hitherto marble and bronze were the sole recognised means of caricaturing posthumous greatness, and the sculptor was the sole expert in the art of making the ridiculous the vehicle of the sublime. More expressly has stained glass been rescued from the domain of Monus, and kept, at any rate in churches, in subservience to the devotional, or at least ecclesiastical, proprieties of the structure. Forming an express and essential part of the church fabric itself, windows—

Storied windows richly dight -

which thrilled the soul of Milton, till its Puritan alloy was melted in poetic fervour of devotion, share necessarily the sanctity inseparable from the pile and its uses; and to make them tell another tale to the eye is as glaring a shock to that sense in its religious associations, as it would be to the ear to bid the organ discourse jigs and sarabands. It is not a mere intrusion, like that of the monumental groups which crowd the floor or cluster round the piers, but desceration in its most salient and offensive form. Such a crime against art and devotion at once may, of course, be perpetrated in obscure rural sanctuaries, wherever the chance of the period happens to combine a pompous and tasteless squire with an indolent Placebo of an incumbent; but for the abomination to be flaunted, as it is, in the eyes of artistic Europe now met in London—for it to affront the religious eye in the noble church which holds the grandest elements of historical England under the sway of its associations—is a national degradation which nothing in the world of art can exceed, which nothing can excuse, and nothing expiate. One would think that a congé délire regulated the proceedings of the legal custodians of a Cathedral pile in the admission of a monument, as in the election of a bishop; but many deans, we hope, exist at this moment, who would have undergone the penalties of a premunire, whatever at the present day they may amount to, rather than have willingly admitted such a window into their churches. It is a sight which will revive on Continental tongues the indignant query concerning Protestantism, qu'est ce qu'il a fait de beau? Or, rather, it will provoke the further question, what is there of the sublime, the beautiful, and the venerable, which it cannot find the will and the way to spoil and outrage, to sully and to mar?

and outrage, to sully and to mar?

It is melancholy to have to connect the name of Stephenson with such a monument as the window which has been erected to his memory, as though to show that a gulf must exist between the useful and the beautiful. That great, but humble soul would, we fancy, have recoiled from the contemplation of his honours; and his sturdy North-country vernacular would have furnished some blunt expression of disgust. A great man's feelings are eclipsed in his services, and we think, in setting up his memorial, not whether he would have liked it, but how we can best glorify ourselves, the British people from whom he rose, at his expense. He has been gathered into the garner of popular greatness, he has become so much national capital, as it were, and we proceed to draw upon him. An apotheosis itself involves a species of posthumous ostracism.

draw upon him. An apotheosis itself involves a species of posthumous ostracism.

No one worth listening to would have raised any objection to a memorial of Stephenson in the Abbey, on intrinsic grounds. At any rate, if any there be who entertain queasy scruples on the subject, and whose veto would have carried weight, we may, once for all, renounce any sympathy with their objections. There is, indeed, an abatement to be made in the case of a great engineer from the full cogency of the argument in favour of erecting a monument to a great warrior or statesman, or even author. It is this—that his works, being material, themselves constitute a permanent memorial of his greatness. It is not that the drum, the banner, and the cannon are more worthy of the honours of the art than the spade or the hammer, but that the former are the symbols of a result which is not material, and which, as it cannot be embodied, can only be symbolized. The tubular bridge, in itself, is better than a pyramid, and in proportion as it fulfils the best conditions of a monument, and appeals to the man's memory in his works more directly and powerfully than could the "storied urn or animated bust," it so far tends to supersede the necessity of these secondary expressions of value for his greatness. Still, though Stephenson did so much for himself in what he did for the public, that is no reason why we should do nothing to show our esteem for him. No one, therefore, would grudge him the memorial, though, in his peculiar line of greatness, there seems a less imperative call for it than in the case of some others. Wren folt the felicity of the monument which his well-known epitaph claims; but amongst the minor eccentricities of bad taste which this "Stephenson Window" includes, is the disregard of the appealing circumspice which guards the dust of the great architect from being pressed by any meaner pile than

the dome of St. Paul's. He is grouped with the other worthies who fill their various panes in the Stephenson Window, in Westminster Abbey, but his appearance there must be regarded as under protest.

There is further this objectionable feature in the whole general design—that it is, as it were, a parody on the usual Scriptural or devotional idea of a church window. There, some scene from Holy Writ, or, in older windows, from sacred legend, so reputed, is pour trayed; whilst the notice of the individual to be commemorated lurks in an inscription. So it is here, save that the general idea of the window appears to be to represent the history of engineering; and the man designed to be kept in memory has his name inscribed below, and his face painted in above, either in one of the medalions, or in that "Banquo's glass" of famous engineers which "shows us many more" beside him, occupying as it does the position in the head of the window sometimes given to a cherub's head and wings on a tembstone. That is to say, devotion and spirituality are excluded, and mechanics and engineering are substituted for them. It is a profane glorification of mechanical science at the expense of all that a Church fabric should symbolize to the eye. It would be not so bad for a Townhall. It would be excellent for a Mechanics' Institute, and the very beau ideal of a decoration for the interior of the big hall at the Euston Square terminus. It so happens that, as the Scriptural records are among the earliest of man and his works, two or three of the structural scenes which the books of Moses detail are included, among other antiquities, to fill up vacant spaces. But it is plain that it is wholly in their structural aspect that Noah's Ark and the Tabernacle were seized upon; and on what principle the Tower of Babel was excluded from the vertical series which begins with the Ark and culminates in, we believe series which begins with the Ark and culminates in, we believe series which begins with the Ark and culminates in, we believe series which begins with the Ark and culminates in, we believe series which begins with the Ark and culminates in, we believe the whole is, that one cannot help suspecting "Scriptural" subjects were thrown in b

have appeared in the Creed.

On similar principles we might have, if one, why not a series of, church windows embodying the history of every science and art? Take, as a closely cognate subject, military engineering. We decline, on the ground of conscientious scruples, the Scriptural branch of the antiquities of the subject. But one might start with the Trojan Horse. The turning the bed of the Euphrates and capture of Babylon, as described in Herodotus, might come next. The canal through Mount Athos, from the same author, might conduct the eye to the escape of the garrison of Platea, and the attempted circumvallation of Syracuse, from Thucydides. Archimedes might do duty over again, with his burning-glass, destroying the Roman fleet in the same city's harbour; or he might form the crowning group in company with Vauban, Demetrius Poliorcetes, Todleben, and Sir John Burgoyne, in a circle of medallions at top. Sections of the Roman Vallum and Agger, and of Cresar's bridge over the Rhine, might fill compartments, and lead up to the earthworks of Sebastopol, the more recent iron-cased batteries, and the newest and neatest thing in pontoons. Again, in Sir Cornewall Lewis's Astronomy of the Ancients, any amount of antique material in illustration of that science might be found ready to hand. Far more innocent, in the eyes of some of our contemporaries, would such a series be than Brunel's locomotive, as in an actual upper compartment of the "Stephenson Window," smoking away in the face of the congregation, and suggesting to their lawless imaginations at escape from the fifty-minutes' sermon to the "Subbath" excursion train. Once more, if the tubes of the Britannia Bridge and the winged bulls of Nineveh are to cast their "dim, irreligious light" on a Cathedral pavement, why stop at this solitary branch of decoration in the establishment of the secular principle? We recommend the heads of Watt and Arkwright for corbeils; whilst Friar Bacon and his brazen head might, gurgoyle-wise, decorate the exterior of the towers. Enc

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Great Plutarch, Neptune,
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fareage of other all standing naked in the open air.

Alas, that the parallel should occur in a description of a window in Westminster Abbey, and its subject a memorial in honour of Robert Stephenson!

The Thames embankment.

WE do not seem destined to innovate upon our familiar traditions of bad management in the matter of the Thames Embankment. London improvements are still to be a cosp manqué. The value of the discussions in the House of Commons for passing the measure which has now become law, and which affects only the north bank of the river, was that it presented an opportunity for a curious cross division, and for the agreeable pastime of everybody charging everybody else with a job. It was sport to see a Tory Duke and a Radical "Westminster's Glory" on the same side. It was sport to see rival Chancellors of the Exchequer in the attitude of two puguacious dogs sidling and bristling with rage, only unwilling to fly at each other's throats because neither was quite certain that the original job, if there was a job, was not the job of his own party. But most sport of all was it to see Mr. William Cowper in the greatest mess of the Session. The crimination and recrimination of the "J. O." affair was the most lively passage of recent debate; and as anything's fun in the country, so, in the dullest of all dull Parliaments, the Thames Embankment was universally hailed with the same sort of feeling that a rat hunt is welcomed before the shooting season sets in. Not that, to do them only simple justice, one in ten of the voluble speakers cared anything for the Thames Embankment, or whether the traffic which was to be released entered at a gentle curve or at right angles to the quay, whether it was to go up-hill or down-hill, or whether Whitch all Gardens were to be bisected or Richmond Terrace laid waste. It was the personal, not the public, aspect of the matter which made it so entertaining. After all, few people have cared to follow the course of the Bill to its end. The Bill went to the Lords, and the Duke of Buccleuch made a conciliatory speech, and the Lords made some amendment, and the recognised grumblers, some decorous, but faint, show of resistance; but in the end, perhaps in very weariness, they ate

winds up the whole matter by the sorry but certain assurance that there will be no quays at all, but only an ugly embankment, like that at Millbank.

This is probably about the truth; and the mistake throughout has been in characterizing the scheme in ambitious language. It was launched to attract the aesthetics. It was never really intended to quay the Thames. What was wanted was only some device for carrying the great Main Sewer somewhere without interfering with the Strand. To have shut up the Strand for a year would have been about equivalent to the occupation of London by a foreign army. At all events this calamity must be averted. If the line of the Strand and Fleet Street was impassable, the parallel line of the river itself was available. Given this sewer along the bank of the river, and that it must be at a certain height, and it followed that it must be covered in. Here is a roadway and an embankment of a sort. Here is a certain solid ground borrowed from the Thames. It may as well be called a quay. We may as well throw in the memories of Sir Christopher Wren and Colonel Trench. The occasion, people said, is a good one for reviving the profitable and abortive traditions of many Commissions and many Committees; so we will have a Bill for the Thames Embankment. And, now that we have got it, the difficulty will be how to use it, or to find if there is any use for it. The embankment, after all, will be a sort of double bottle—a bottle with a neck at both ends—as it were an amphisbænic bottle. There will be ample space in the middle, but at either extremity the narrowest possible gorge—a roadway vast, ample, and practicable all along the middle, but with Ludgate Hill and Parliament Street at each end—galloping ground when you get into it, but a double bullfincher and a broad stream before you can land on the level. Lord Redesdale was quite right (in such matters he is usually quite right) when he said that the widening of Parliament Street, and a new street through the city, that is, from Blackfriars to th

diagonally from Puddle Dock, at the side of Blackfriars Bridge, to the Mansion House. It is actually commenced—part of it already constructed; and we therefore speak of it in the present tense. But its completion is to be abandoned, because the civic corporation so wills. The city declines to prosecute this portion of the scheme. It is postponed indefinitely. In other words, the City Corporation has jobbed a job. They resisted the proposition that the Thames should be quayed from Blackfriars to London Bridge, as well as from Blackfriars to Westminster, on the understanding that, by completing the New Earl Street communication, they would effectually relieve Cheapside and Fleet Street. Having succeeded, in the interest of the Thames Street wharfingers, in defeating the total embankment of the Thames, they now decline to pay the price of their immunity. They will not embank the Thames east of Blackfriars, and they will not make the promised street; and so, for all traffic purposes, things might as well remain just as they are. So long as you lose your train or your dinner it matters little whether you are locked up for an hour, as at present, in Fleet Street, or, as it will be, on Ludgate Hill. And, for some reason or other—or probably for no better reason than that the West should be equally obstinate with the East—that easiest and most natural of all street improvements, the widening of Parliament Street, is resisted by the combined evil genius of the Government, the Board of Works, and the Metropolitan Ædiles in Spring Gardens.

Turning from the North to the South, we must say that any expectations of a Southern Embankment in any real sense of the

ment, the Board of Works, and the Metropolitan Ædiles in Spring Gardens.

Turning from the North to the South, we must say that any expectations of a Southern Embankment in any real sense of the word are absolutely annihilated by the report of the Royal Commissioners just issued. In one summary sentence they assert that an Embankment from Deptford to Westminster is not wanted at all. That is to say, in the thickest of the population, in the densest hannts of business, where everything is most unhealthy, unsightly, and untidy, no quays are wanted. A new street through Southwark, already in progress, will relieve the traffic, and a better system of drainage will prevent the flooding of the Borough. If this is true of the South, it is more true of the North, and, as we have already hinted, the embankment of the North bank of the Thames is, as far as traffic purposes are concerned, a mere sham and delusion. The Commissioners for the South by their report condemn the legislation for the North. If no embankment is wanted for Southwark, none was needed for the Strand. The real reason why the Commissioners report against the Southern quays is because there are certain powerful wharfingers along the proposed line of embankment in Southwark, and especially near London Bridge, whose interests would, it is feared, be compromised by the scheme.

Bridge, whose interests would, it is feared, be compromised by the scheme.

But the Commissioners do recommend something in the way of a Southern Embankment. It is only just to begin at the exact point of the river on the South where the embankment on the North stops. We are to have an embankment on the North side from Blackfriars to Westminster, and on the South side from Westminster to Battersea Park. It was felt to be hard and unfair to squeeze up poor Father Thames on both sides at once. The spectacle of oozy festering mud, and the stench of scrubby shoals reeking under the summer sun, were too delightful to be altogether sacrificed. If this salutary home of disease and dirt is to go in Middlesex, it must at least be preserved in Surrey. It is too much to think of having a clean and healthy Thames side on both banks of the river. If there is to be an embankment, which after all is a mere sentimentalism, it may be constructed—such is the Commissioners' recommendation—out of town. There is the healthy suburb of Vauxhall and Lambeth to embank if you like. We will make it quite ornamental opposite the Houses of Parliament, and it will be a real blessing to the nursery maids who want to go to the new Battersea Park. It will cost only 1,100,000/c, and we can renew the coal and wine duties for these moderate charges. This is all but the exact language of the Report of the Commissioners. If London, that is, if the coal burners and wine drinkers of London, are to be taxed for a Thames Embankment, they will cheerfully pay it provided that embankment is a real one—that is, if it embanks the river in London. And by London we mean that part, insignificant in the eyes of Royal Commissioners, which lies between London Bridge and Westminster Bridge. But whether we in London are to be made to pay for an embankment somewhere in the suburbs, opposite Cubitt's poles, and for the benefit of Battersea Park, is one thing for Royal Commissioners to suggest, and another for Parliament to enforce.

BINOCULAR VISION AND THE PAINTER'S ART.

"CAN a man paint what he sees?" On the answer to this query depends the solution of the problem involved in the disputes between the literalists in painting and their antagonists. There is a further query which requires a satisfactory reply before the matter can be practically settled. "Ought a man to paint what he sees?" But this question as to what he ought to do must be postponed to the question as to what he can do. We therefore recur to our first words—"Can a man paint what he sees?" The answer is sufficiently obvious, and yet we could not put our finger on any passage in any book where it is honestly given. A man can paint what he sees with one eye, but not what he sees with two eyes. In this proposition we venture to think that one great secret of the painter's art is contained, and that a brief sketch of the conclusions it involves will be valuable in these days of Ruskinism and anti-Ruskinism.

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The impression produced on the brain by any one object results, as we all know, from the combined action of two separate optical instruments placed side by side in the human countenance, a short distance apart from one another. Each eye sees something which is not seen by its fellow. The right eye sees more of one side of a solid object, the left eye more of the other side of the same. The image produced on the retina of the right eye is thus yery far from being an exact facsimile of the image produced on the left retina. By some mysterious nerve-process, these two images become practically one in the brain; and the mind, knowing all visible objects only through the brain, conceives of them accordingly. Without being conscious of seeing two separate portions of an object at once, it acquires a distinct perception of its solidity in space. The object "stands out" before it as a thing possessing form as well as colour—round, or square, or many-sided, as the case may be.

Hence, also, the mind conceives of all objects as being placed at different distances from the spectator. Though the mere lines which represent the limits of each object lie apparently in one flat plane, as when reproduced in a painting, the impression upon the brain is one of various degrees of intervening space. Altogether apart from the effect produced by gradations in tone and tint, which we know by experience are connected, through atmospheric influences, with certain variations in linear distance from our eyes, we have a sensation of nearness in the nearer objects and of distance in the more distant objects which is the immediate result of this binocular vision. When the objects observed are so far away

we have a sensation of nearness in the nearer objects and of distance in the more distant objects which is the immediate result of this binocular vision. When the objects observed are so far away that the effect of the binocular vision becomes virtually nothing, as in the sun, moon, and stars, all conception as to actual distance is lost. We cannot guess whether the moon is fifty miles or fifty thousand miles away from us. But, in the subjects chosen by the painter, our perception of relative distance is materially enhanced by the power which we possess of seeing two sides of a body at the same time.

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enhanced by the power which we possess of seeing two sides of a body at the same time.

When the painter shows us on canvas or on paper the visible appearances which he desires to reproduce, this binocular faculty is lost. He presents us with a flat surface, and nothing more. We look at his work with both our eyes, but each eye sees precisely the same appearance, and the result is wholly dissimilar to that which is produced by the contemplation of the real objects depicted. The union of the two images, which in actual vision is produced in the brain itself, is produced in the representation by the painter's hand. It might have been imagined that the result would be the same, but it is not so. In the latter case, we really see but one object—in the former, we imagine we see but one; but the impression on the mind in the latter case is that of a smooth plane—in the former, of a combination of solid bodies. Hence follows the necessity for a conventionalism in the painter's art little practised by many artists, and possibly by the greatest with no theoretical knowledge of the reasons for its adoption. This conventionalism consists in an exaggeration of the degrees of what is termed aërial perspective. The sense of space depending on two conditions—namely, an alteration in colour graduated by the relative distances of objects from the spectator, and a perception of two separate views of each object—the loss of this binocular perception necessitates an increase in the variations of actual tint. perception necessitates an increase in the variations of actual tint. A picture in which each separate portion is coloured up to the tone of the original scene, presents an impression totally unlike that of the real scene when taken as a whole. It is utterly without what is technically termed "space" and atmospheric effect.

without what is technically termed "space" and atmospheric effect.

An examination of the works of the greatest artists will prove the truth of these remarks in a moment. Take those of the greatest of landscape painters. No man ever produced the same impression of space and distance as Turner. In an engraving a few inches square, Turner gives a sense of magnitude and positive physical size which borders on the marvellous. But examine the details. Everything, except the foreground, is paler than in reality. It is not only, as is generally imagined, that Turner marks the gradations of light and shade with an unrivalled accuracy of eye and delicacy of touch, but that he positively exaggerates them all, back to the very farthest horizon. No "extreme distance" ever really appeared as faint in colour as it does in his pictures. The tone of a building, say, a quarter of a mile from the foreground, is as subdued in tint, and as hazy in its outline, as if it were half a mile away. The result is, that it appears to be really a quarter of a mile distant, while the literal reproduction of an ordinary artist would have brought it comparatively close up to the spectator's eye.

It is to be remarked, further, that the brain, in combining in one the diverse images wrought upon the two retinas of the eyes, melts them together with a certain indistinctness of outline. When we look at any solid object, it is only by directing a steadfastly fixed attention on some very small portion of the whole that we can get a perception of hard, clearly defined lines. We must view it piece by piece, as a surface, and not as a solid body, if we wish to see all its distinct linear forms. The moment the brain takes in the whole, the effect of the junction of the two images becomes manifest in a slight haziness of form, increasing in proportion to the extent of the field of vision. Moreover, exactly in proportion as the lines observed lie more or less in a perfectly flat plane, so that the two eyes may perceive, more or less, the identically same

Acting upon this truth, almost all the greatest artists of all schools have given a certain cloudiness of outline to their pictures. Not that this cloudiness has involved an incorrectness of drawing. The sweep and movement of the boundary lines which mark the form of face or figure has been ever true to the reality of nature. Their haziness has resulted from a slight mingling of each colour with its adjacent hue, precisely as, in contemplating the real forms of life, our eyes refuse to mark off one feature from another with any sharn-cut severance. Wetther or not the great mainters have

The sweep and movement or the boundary mice and a surface form of face or figure has been ever true to the reality of nature. Their haziness has resulted from a slight mingling of each colour with its adjacent hue, precisely as, in contemplating the real forms of life, our eyes refuse to mark off one feature from another with any sharp-cut severance. Whether or not the great painters have known why it was that they thus preserved the truth of nature, they certainly have recognised the fact that pictures painted without hard outlines possess a reality about them which is demied to a more literal bit-by-bit rendering of the objects represented.

The fashion of to-day sets in another direction. A literalistic reproduction of material forms, as they are known to the touch, is imagined to be the true work of an art which addresses itself to the eye. Aiming at solidity, firmness, and accuracy, the fashionable school, with all its undeniable genius and skill, produces works which, in some respects, are as untrue artistically as they are untrue both optically and dramatically. They are untrue, in the first place, opically, because they violate the laws of vision, and attribute to the human eye a power of seeing with equal clearness a multiplicity of objects covering a wide field, and placed at every variety of distance from the spectator himself. Thus every part of the pinings thrusts itself into the foreground. Nothing retires—nothing takes its proper place. A hard, unreal, and glaring brightness of colour is substituted for that mingled brilliancy and repose which characterize the living scenas of human life or landscape beauty. Each separate small fragment of the piece may be truly rendered, if cut out from the picture and compared with its material prototype. But, viewed as parts of a whole, they are false to the laws of vision, and the impression they work upon the mind is uncomfortable and irritating, and suggests to all but the most fantacl admirers that there is something wrong somewhere. The fashion of the day

BRIGHTON RACES.

THE sport on the first day at Brighton was but moderate, and the class of horses that contested the different mees was, with a few exceptions, very indifferent. These exceptions were not very difficult to discover, inasmuch as public opinion designated beforehand the winners of every race but one, and it is probable that the favourite would have been successful in that race also, but for the accident of his breaking a blood-vessel just when he began to look like winning. The first race of the day was regarded as a certainty for Voltella, a fine daughter of Voltigeur, and she justified the confidence placed in her by taking the lead from the starting-post, and cantering in, "hands down," an easy winner. For the Brighton Stakes, which was the principal event of the day, another child of Voltigeur, called Watchfire, who ran very well last week at Goodwood, was made a strong favourite, and he also contrived to win, though no without a struggle with Fitz-Eva. The most remarkable feature in this race was Alderoff's splendid rush on Mr. Merry's heavily-

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weighted horse, Sir William. It is only very lately that Aldcroft has appeared in Mr. Merry's well-known yellow and black, in which Custance, who has now quitted Mr. Merry's service, rode so many times on Thormanby and Dundee. Aldcroft failed to catch the two horses that were in front of him, but nevertheless his riding was a fine specimen of jockeyship. The last race of the day, which was for three-year-olds, was won by Lord Stamford's Bertha, one of the best-looking animals among the many good ones of the same year who owe their parentage to Stockwell. It deserves notice, by the way, that up to the present time Stockwell's two-year-old progeny have fallen very far short of the character attained by his sons and daughters of the two preceding years. Bertha was in great force as a two-year-old last year at Goodwood, but her performances of this year have not come up to the promise which she then held out. However, she was thought good enough to have odds laid on her in the present race, which she won easily. It will be judged from these brief notices that the sport on the first day at Brighton was not of a violently exciting character; but as the day was fine, the sea-breez refreshing, the Stand not overcrowded, and the company in good spirits, there was, upon the whole, little to find fault with. Perhaps the only persons who were likely to be dissatisfied with the day were those bookmakers who, relying on the chapter of accidents, obliged the public by betting freely against the favourites. They, however, are a philosophical, and generally prosperous, race of men, and were not likely to take one bad day very much to heart, nor to express their feelings loudly if they did. In spite of fortune's frowns on Tuesday, we do not suppose that the ring made a very bad thing of it at Brighton, seeing that that place is always full, at racing time, of young "swells" who seem to think it due to their appearance and position to have a few bets, to which the diligent and sagacious book-maker can generally accommodate them t

ad thing of it at Brighton, seeing that that place is always full, at racing time, of young "swells" who seem to think it due to their appearance and position to have a few bets, to which the diligent and sagacious book-maker can generally accommodate them to his own advantage.

The race for the Brighton Cup, on the second day, was the last and the most interesting race of the meeting. We do not know why this important race was made the last. This arrangement, which is not usual, must have been highly unsatifactory to those persons who were obliged to leave the course just when the saddling bell was ringing for the Cup race. It happened that the previous race was delayed for a time that seemed interminable, and the last half-hour of many visitors was spent, not in seeing a good race, but in waiting to see a bad one. If was an immense relief when at length this long suspense ended, and after a few minutes' interval signs were seen of preparation for the Cup race. There was reason to believe at the beginning of the week that Tins Whiffler, who won the Goodwood Cup, would compete for the same honour at the Brighton meeting. If he had appeared, his success would have been so near a certainty as to destroy all the interest of the race. But it was known on the course that Tim Whiffler had been sent home, and it was inferred that his owner considered that he could make sure of the Brighton Cup without his help. Lord William Powlett, who lately hought Tim Whiffler, also possesses a very fine mare called Paste, who formerly belonged to the late Duke of Bedford. The first move towards getting ready for the Cup race was the saddling of Paste ander the superintendence of the veteran Rogers who was to ride her. Close at handsome as last week at Goodwood; but she is undersized; and we see of opinion that Paste can very well affind to give her ist, like for the difference of a year in age. It is quite true that Feu-de-Joie won the Oaks, and the Oaks is accounted a great face, yet still we do not think much of her, but rather

was Atherstone, who, notwithstanding his "roaring" weakness, made such a vigorous push for the front as to compel Rogers to call upon his mare for her reserve of power. The mare answered readily to the call, and best Atherstone eleverly by a neck. Thus Lord William Powlett has won the latter nec after making sure of it beforehand. Occasionally one meets with a "certainty" upon the turf, which is proved to deserve the name, but doubless the admirers of Paute will some day get their turn of bad luck, as they did of good luck at Brighton. It was much to be regreted that part of the company should have left the course before this beautiful race for the Cup was run, and we really think that it would be advisable to arrange the programme differently next year. It does not often happen that so much time is wasted in false starts as there was at Brighton; but it is always possible that the last race of the day may be run an hour after the time appointed; and, if the last race he was the start of the course be always and the start of the course he was a start of the course of the course

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lessure from the work in hand, turned, whether in jest or earnest, almost wholly on the Doncaster St. Leger. So far as could be learned on Wednesday evening, the odds between The Marquis and Caractacus would be about six to five. But according to some reports the odds would have been rather the other way next morning. The causes of these fluctuations would be very curious to trace. Sometimes there are good reasons for the movements of the ring, and sometimes there are none at all. Perhaps nothing is, or can be, known about these horses, beyond what was known the day after the Derby. We mentioned last week a report that the Marquis had made sad havoe of Cape Flyaway and the Wizard in training gallops. It might have been added, that Mr. Hawke bought a horse called Phantom specially for this work, and that Phantom was in danger of being reduced to the shadow of his former self. It was agreed by the bookmakers at Brighton, that Buckstone was likely to show himself a much better horse at Doncaster than he was at Epsom; also that Old Calabar is now free from lameness, and at work, and doing well. Then there is Sir Joseph Hawley's Argonaut, a very fine horse, who came to the post quite unfit to run at Epsom. There is also Carisbrook, who won three races and had a fourth given up to him at Ascot; and lastly, it is possible, in spite of the inglorious failure of Feu-de-Joie, that another surprise like that of Caller-Ou may be awaiting the racing world at Doncaster. All things considered, the St. Leger of the present year promises to be one of the most interesting ever known, and it is now near enough at hand to give importance to other race meetings, where betting upon it is largely carried on. Considering the size of Brighton, and its accessibility from London, it is perhaps surprising that the sport there should not be of a higher quality. There was a lack, not of speculators, but of material upon which to speculate.

REVIEWS.

ANAGRAMS.*

MEN have tortured their minds as well as their bodies in all times. Some have gone mad in attempting to square the circle. More have got into gaol by poring over books and crucibles in quest of the great Elixir and the philosopher's stone. Desire to invent a universal language has unsettled many brains; and Alexander Cruden, he that compiled sanely enough the Concordance of the Bible, was thoroughly insane in every other work he took in hand, from a broadside addressed to the Lord Mayor to his projects for reforming the State addressed to the Prime Minister. We can, however, hardly conceive a more effectual method for getting into Bedlam than to set up as an inventor of the various kinds of brain-torture enumerated and described in Mr. Wheatley's learned and entertaining little volume; and when we opened it, skinds of brain-torture enumerated and described in Mr. Wheatley's learned and entertaining little volume; and when we opened it, we expected to find in it more than a few instances of madness produced by devising "Lipograms, Chronograms, Logograms, Palindromes, and Anagrams." It does not appear, however, that fatuity, mania, or any known form of mental disease was the result of such pursuits, and we are accordingly driven to the conclusion that anagrammatists are gifted by nature, like colliers, porters, and other muscular Christians, with strong constitutions. For what system, short of what is commonly called the constitution of a horse, could withstand the wear and tear implied in the composition of the "Poëme Spirituel et Chrétien en xii livres," entitled, "La Magdelaine au Désert de la Sainte-Baume en Provence," in which the author, Pierre de Saint-Louis, "anagrammatized the names of all the Popes, of the German Emperors, of the Kings of France, of the Generals of his Order, and of many other Saints." After this feat Lengley du Fresnoy's scheme for reading in ten years and six months all the histories that ever were written from the days of Moses to those of Menage must hide its diminished head. its diminished head.

were written from the days of Moses to those of Menage must hide its diminished head.

Upon the worth and merit of such feats doctors differ widely in opinion. Addison thought that "the acrostick was probably invented about the same time with the anagram, though it is impossible to decide whether the inventor of the one or the other were the greater blockhead." On the other hand, Drummond of Hawthornden, a better poet than Addison, and Camden, the antiquary, a more profound, if a less elegant scholar, deemed this kind of wit important enough for serious discussion and formal rules; while Peacham in his Complete Gentleman ranks anagrams among the conceits of art and pleasant invention that no well-bred gentleman should be ignorant of. Kings and Emperors have disagreed on this question no less than scholars. For, whereas the Emperor Rudolph recompensed liberally Martin Cuthenus, Syndic of the city of Prague, for an ingenious chronogram, Henry of Navarre told an anagrammatist that it "was no wonder he was in needy circumstances, for he had taken to such a beggarly trade." In this instance, there may have been some private, if not professional, pique, for the king was an adept in the anagrammatic art, and the needy gentleman had punned, in very doubtful fashion, on his name of Bourbon—Bourbonius being either "Bonus orbi," or "Orbus bons." "Non nostrum est tantas componere lites;" but we

may remark that Drummond, Camden, or Peacham belonged to an age when Euphuism was in fashion—that nothing delighted Queen Elizabeth or her successor, in their royal progresses, more than flattery in quaint forms—and that Addison, as Mr. Wheatley observes, overlooks in his censure the skill which such transposi-tions, to be successful, demand.

tions, to be successful, demand.

Before entering on the main subject of his monograph—snagrams proper—Mr. Wheatley passes in review other kinds of eccentric composition, that at some time or other have found favour with the learned or the idle. Chronograms—a sort of artificial memory for names and dates; punning mottoes, dear to heralds and antiquaries; Palindromes and Sotadic verses, which read forward and backward; Lyon verses, in which each entire word is bodily reversed in its position in the sentence; Leonine verses, in which the middle and the end of each line rhyme together; Rhopalic verses, in which the words rise in regular scale from the opening monosyllable to the concluding polysyllable, "each succeeding word being larger than the one preceding it;" shaped verses, in which whole sentences or poems were cast into the figure of eggs, axes, and altars; echo and equivocal verses, lipograms and acrostics, and other species of elaborate wit or dulness, make up the contents of this olio of oddities. If the samples collected in this little volume are among the idle fancies and least profitable exercises of the mind, the collector of them has, in his concluding page, supplied a valid excuse for the pains he has taken:—

I have [he says] passed rapidly through many centuries, and found the art of anagrammatism taking root in almost every country of Europe. I must now conclude this essay with the observation that, though anagrams and all kinds of play upon words are in themselves trivial, there is no doubt that, on the presumption of recreation being necessary in a life of toll, the mind will at times find amusement and delight in trifles; and it is not as follies, but as curiosities, and illustrations of the relaxation of the human mind, that I have endeavoured to collect into one focus what I have found scattered through many works, and thus to form a monograph of one of the many curious phases of the intellect.

mind, that I have endeavoured to collect into one focus what I have found scattered through many works, and thus to form a monograph of one of the many curious phases of the intellect.

"Abridgements," says Lord Bacon, "are but flashy things," and we shall not attempt to abbreviate the brief volume before us, further than may serve to show that it performs all that it promises. We proceed to select a few samples of the curious, and, for the most part, superannuated humour collected by Mr. Wheatley. Even trifles have often a serious side. An epigram has more than one caused bloodshed, whether in the form of duels or of "war in procinct." A street-ballad has kindled the wrath or roused the indolence of nations. Prophecies, rumours and dreams have set up or pulled down thrones. A window out of repair, and a rebuke for delay in having it mended, made Louvois light up a war in order that his master Louis might have more urgent matters in hand than inspection of works at Versailles; and a quip of his good brother of France brought William the Norman with fiery speed across the water to wipe off the untimely jest. Anagrams have broken the slumbers of more than one king and pope; and the inventor of Palindromes—Sotades, a Greek poet of Thrace—found it but ill jesting with princes, for Ptolemy Philadelphus had him thrown into the sea in requital for an unpalatable lampoon. Mr. Wheatley has forgotten to mention one of some note in its day, which is credited to the same Ptolemy. It seems there was in the Museum of Alexandria one Sosibius, who went by the name of "the apologist" (§ &v-180), or answerer of objections. He had made, in the King's opinion, an unwarrantable use of the figure Anastrophe, by which grammarians shifted words or syllables from one member of a sentence to another, as might best suit their own convenience. Ptolemy applied this figure to the apologist himself. He ordered the treasurer of the Museum to withhold Sosibius's pension, and to declare that it had been duly paid. The answerer of objections cou anagrammatists.

anagrammatists.

Perhaps we may detect in Anagrams some traces of national physiognomy. The Jews, a grave and saturnine race, and the graver sort among them, the learned and ascetic Talmudists, delighted in such feats of legerdemain. In words and letters they found mystical and moral significance more extravagant even than the dreams of philologers. "Some of their transpositions," Mr. Wheatley remarks, "are most ungallant, for they have found, by transposing the letters of the Hebrew word signifying 'Man,' the new one 'Benediction,' and in 'Woman,' 'Malediction." But they also discovered that Abraham wept but little for Sarah is wife, because a remarkably small letter—Caph—is used in the Hebrew word which describes Abraham's tears, inferring from the size of the letter the limited nature of the Patriarch's gried. This is most "excellent fooling;" yet perhaps a sound Talmudist might allege that there is some colour for Abraham's resignation,

^{*} Of Anagrams; a Monograph treating of their History from the Earliest Ages to the Present Time, &c. By H. B. Wheatley. Printed by Stephen Austin, Hertford, London: Williams & Norgate. 1262.

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since he consoled himself by taking another wife, even Keturah; and although in her lifetime Serah had worshipped her husband, "calling him Lord," yet she had more than once displayed a shrewish temper.

The fively-witted and ingenious Greeks, on the other hand, were, as we might expect, adepts in the anagrammatic art, for which, indeed, their flexible language afforded no ordinary advaninges. Their performances in this line of wit ascend into remote eras, and, like more important arts and sciences, are ascribed to Homer as their inventor. No samples, however, have come down to us of the old minstrel's skill; neither have we any reason for thinking that Euripides, so ingenious in his ethical sophisms, was an anagrammatist. The earliest specimens preserved came from Alexandria, a soil fertile in quips and quiddities and suchlike branches of learning. Of the seven poets who composed the famous Pleiades, Lycophron was one; and unless the Alexandrians were fanatically fond of riddles in verse, crabbed enough to have puzzled Edipus himself, and to have saved the Sphinx from self-destruction, he must have owed his poetical honours not to his unreadable Cassandra, but to the delicate compliments he paid, anagrammatically, to his patron Ptolemy Philadelphus, and his patron's sister and wife, the beautiful Arsinoe. Horasaies, Lycophron transmuted into & & Mares, and Apourón into les Heas, an image the worth of which Shakspeare helps us to estimate by one yet more exquisite: more exquisite:-

Violets, dim, But sweeter than the lids of Juno's eyes.

Sometimes anagrams proved as double-edged as oracles, and, like them, led the credulous into mischief. "When Constantine III., son of the Emperor Heraclius, was about to give battle, he dreamt that he took the way through Thessalonica into Macedonia." One of his courtiers thus expounded the dream. Dividing **escanosis*psi into syllables, he made of it **escanosis*psi ledve the victory to others. Constantine disregarded the anagram, "fought the battle, and was besten" and was beaten."

and was beaten."

Italy has proved, both of yore and in modern times, a barren soil as regards such distortion of words and letters. The old Romans, who occasionally made respectable puns, were clumsy anagrammatists, never getting beyond such palpable divisions of syllables as that of Terminus into Terminus—an anagram within the capacity of "babes and sucklings." Yet on this slender foundation some particular blockhead, quoted with applause by Aulus Gellius, raised an enigma "very tolerable and not to be endured." Neither have the modern Italians cultivated the anagrammatic art with better success than their ancestors. According to Camden, indeed, they were "seri studiorum," beginning only in the sixteenth century to rack their brains in quest of "meanings never meant." The slackness of Rome and Italy, in this respect, is the more remarkable if we consider how readily the Latin language lends itself to such transmutations. There are, probably, more anagrams in Latin than in any two or three modern languages taken together; indeed, modern names and words must often be turned into Latin before they will consent to become anagrams. hecome anagrams.

modern languages taken together; indeed, modern names and words must often be turned into Latin before they will consent to become anagrams.

Next to the Greeks, the French, who in many other respects resemble the Athenians, have proved adroit and fertile anagrammatists. They held, indeed, the art in such esteem, that in the reign of Louis XIII. they had "a salaried official," whose duty it was, not to write birth-day odes, or to drink a butt of sack annually, but to twist names into pretty conceits. The office, however, was short-lived. Thomas Billon was, Mr. Wheatley believes, the first and last who held it. His appointment by Louis XIII., the son of the great Henri, is significant. The Béarnese was himself so expert an anagrammatist that he might have "served both for king and for poet." His conversion of "Marie Touchet," the beautiful mistress of Charles IX., into "Je charme tout," is most felicitous. To whom, of all conceivable people, does the reader suppose that the invention of anagrams in France is to be ascribed? We might allow as much latitude for conjecture as Madame de Sévigné allowed for guessing whom M. de Lauzun was to espouse—"dimanche au Louwre." The inventor of such ingenious trifling was grim John Calvin! We might almost as soon have expected him to devise "le menuet de la cour." John, we suspect, discovered that transposition of letters was an admirable mode of saddling his foes with stinging and clinging nick-names. Of Rabelais, Latinized into "Rabelassius," he made "Rabio-lassus," and the great Pantagruelist, without help from Latin, returned the compliment by converting Calvin into Jan Cal (jack-ass). The fashion once set, theologians took very kindly to anagrammatising. Père Coton defended his order—the Societas Jesu—from the charge of stimulating Ravaillac to assassimate Henry IV. Whereupon "Pierre Coton" was turned into "Perce ton Roi;" but inasmuch as the Jesuits suspected Pierre Dumoulin of thrust in carte, they thrust in tierce, and out of "Petrus Dumoulin" fabricated "Errivanudi L

a piece of wit that might have ranked in earlier days among the beat productions of the Delphic tripod... Kings and queens came in, of course, for their full share of panegyric and pasquinade. Lonias XIII. was thus complimented upon his skill in falconry. "Roe très-rare, estimé dieu de la fauconnerie" — a clever permutation of his name and title, "Louis XIII., Roi de France et de Navarre;" and Marie Therèse et Austriche, wife of the Most Christian king his son, was stated with the precision of a registrar of births and marriages to be "Mariée au Roi très-chrétien." While the great of the earth were thus applauded, Mary Magdalen must be considered as peculiarly unfortunate — some anagrammatising reprobate discovering that "Marie Madelaine" was convertible into "Mauvaise Haleine."

Scholars were not behind the clergy in this race of wit. Scioppius changed Scaliger into Sacrilége, and we do not find that either Julius or Joseph, prone as they were to wrath and rovenge, replied in kind. The great bibliographer Magliabecch afforded Father Finardi a brave opportunity for displaying his skill — since Autonius Magliabecchius becomes, after due coaxing, Is some bibliothece magna. An admirer of Voltaire was less happy in discerning that the name yields "O alle vir;" for among his many extraordinary, and some excellent gitls, loftiness of mind was not one. The reader, perhaps, needs hardly to be reminded that Voltaire is itself an anagram. Anout le jeune, before he commenced authorship, used to sign himself "Arouel 1.j." and these letters — the seconing v, and the ji-he transposed into a name celebrated "ultra Sauromatas et glacialem oceanum."

The pseudonymes of writers whom regard for their necks or innate modesty has led to veil their baptismal names have furnished matter for volumes. Nor is the list likely to close, since the practice is by no means extinct. One of the most gifted of living dramatic writers, whom, indeed, we may reproach for having contributed so little to the theatre, since what he has written for it

The few samples we have given of Mr. Wheatley's rich collection will, perhaps, induce some of our readers to consult his book for themselves. It is well and scholarly executed, and, if it does not exhaust the subject, is a very useful contribution to the minor experiments of literature. curiosities of literature.

PRINCIPLES OF TAXATION.

A DAM SMITH'S first maxim of taxation—that the subjects of every State should contribute as nearly as possible in proportion to their respective abilities, &c.—has been generally accepted by political economists without question, and has even been treated in financial controversy as if some theory of verbal inspiration were applicable to it. The exact words which the philosopher happened to use have been appealed to as if they were the expressions of infallible wisdom. Controversialists have put their own meaning on them, and have condemned each other without mercy for dissenting from the canon of economic truth. Yet, apart from any doubt that may be thrown upon the meaning of the maxim, or upon its application with mathematical accuracy to every possible case, it may be objected that equality of taxation, in any sense which can be put upon Adam Smith's language, is, after all, not a principle the justice of which lies on the surface. If a poor man has to pay exactly as much as a rich man for everything else, irrespective of his ability, why should he pay less for the services of the State in proportion to the inferiority of his means? Mr. Neate is, we believe, the first economist of any note who has

^{*} Three Lectures on Texation. By Charles Neate, Professor of Political conomy in the University of Oxford. J. H. & J. Parker.

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rentured to set aside Adam Smith's maxim altogether, substituting for it, as "the fundamental principle of taxation," the maxim that avery man should be taxed in proportion to the benefit he derives from the State. This principle is, according to Mr. Neate, founded on the very nature of a tax, "which is that of a payment to the State for the work it performs." The chief benefit, he argues, which a man derives from a settled form of government is security for his savings, and there are myriads who have no savings. Indeed, if Mr. Neate is not mistaken, there are "thousands of man in this country with whom it would be a question savings. Indeed, if Mr. Neate is not mistaken, there are "thousands of men in this country with whom it would be a question whether they would not prefer to their present lot that of the naked Britons, who were at least sufficiently well fed to make a vigorous resistance to Cassar and his veterans." But this is rather a rhetorical than a conclusive argument. There might have been many natives of Britain perishing for want of food at the very time that others were bravely contending with the Roman troops. If a modern Cassar were now to invade Great Britain, he would meet with many natives sufficiently well, fed to make a vigorous resistance. many natives of Britain perishing for want of food at the very time that others were bravely contending with the Roman troops. If a modern Cæsar were now to invade Great Britain, he would meet with many natives sufficiently well-fed to make a vigorous resistance, although weavers might be starving in Lancashire, and although some of the soldiers in the British army might have been badly fed up to the day of their enlistment. When people talk of hardy barbarians, they are apt to forget that all barbarians are not hardy, and that even the hardiest of them often suffer cruel privations. The climate of this island was more inclement in Cæsar's time than it is now, and "naked Britons" must have often perished for want of shelter and clothing. If there are really any persons in this civilized world who would be ready to exchange their own lot for that of the ancient Britons, it is because they are imperfectly informed as to what the lot of the latter really was. It was, for the most part, and with the servile classes in particular, one of surpassing misery, for a parallel to which in modern times we must look to the condition of the most savage tribes of Africa, and even they are exposed to fewer natural hardships. The law now exacts the same penalty for the murder of a peasant as for that of the highest noble, but the blood of the hind was held cheap by our barbarous ancestors. Even in better times, before a general government was solidly established, feudal servitudes and exactions were the price the poor had to pay to the rich for protection; and "Spend me and defend me" was the saying of the Irish peasantry. It is far from being true, as Mr. Neate has assumed, that the chief benefit of a settled government is security for savings; for life, and limb, and liberty, and wife, and children, are dearer to a man than gold, and the cottage is more easily assailed by the ruffian or the brigand than the castle. And we need not tell Mr. Neate that those who have no savings benefit largely from the savings of others, since particular. The poorer a the less it asks in return.

After setting aside the ordinary canon respecting the measure of taxation, Mr. Neate intimates his dissent from the doctrines of political economy in another matter, in regard to which he thinks it happy for the country that its practical statesmen have not been guided by the "strict conclusions" of the science. We might suggest that political economists are not political economy, and that a science does not consist of all the doctrines of those who study it, but of the sound philosophy and truth at the bottom of their reasoning. If any economists have contended that the imposition or removal of a tax on the necessaries of life makes no difference to the labourer, this does not prove that the strict conclusions of political economy are false, but only that the economists in question have reasoned inaccurately from the doctrine of population. Mr. Neate, however, disputes the general dependence of the rate of wages upon supply and demand. The minimum rate of wages means practically, he says, "the lowest point to which the interest, the humanity, and the fears of the employer will allow him to reduce them;" but the recent fluctuations of wages in Lancashire establish with terrible force the strict truth of the economic law that the minimum of wages is fixed, beyond the control of either capitalists or labourers, by the proportion of expital to labour.

Mr. Neate argues at some length that the financial reforms of modern legislation have been more favourable to the rich than to the poor. But it is remarkable that, in estimating the weights in the two scales, he omits to take the Income-tax into consideration. He also asserts that the rich share largely in the benefit of reduced taxation on the necessaries of life—which involves the fallacy that masters have gained the reduction in the price of their labourers' bread by the repeal of the Corn Laws; and he specially refers to the repeal of the duty on soap as a

chief benefit to the wealthy classes, "for there is no want which increases more rapidly with wealth than that of cleanliness." We should think, however, that few rich men wear one more shirt in the day, or wash their hands once oftener in the week, than they would if the duty on soap had been left as it was; whereas its remission is of considerable importance to the mechanic in a ditty business, and to the ploughman who puts on a clean smock every Sunday.

The vexed question of the proper taxation of incomes of different durability is, in Mr. Neate's judgment, easily solved by reference to the general principle he has laid down of contribution in proportion to benefit, from which he thinks it follows at once that in proportion to beneat, from which he thinks it follows at once that incomes should be taxed in proportion to their capitalized or market value. "Upon this principle," he says, "all direct taxation should be framed." He seems to arrive at this conclusion by the following steps:—First, a man is benefited by the State in proportion to the amount of his real income, and should pay in that proportion; secondly, the amount of his real income is what he can prudently according to the state of the st amount of his real income, and should pay in that proportion; secondly, the amount of his real income is what he can prudently expend; and thirdly, he can prudently expend only the interest of the sum which his source of income would fetch in the market. We have already shown the fallacy of the first of these propositions. But, as regards its application to permanent and terminable or precarious incomes, Mr. Neate urges that a fixed income, such as that of a fundholder, depends entirely upon the stability of Government and the assistance of the law, while the income of a professional man — of a surgeon, for example—might even increase in a time of anarchy. This may be answered as it was by Mr. Babbage ten years ago, in his evidence before Mr. Hume's Committee on the Income-tax:—"The professional man can produce nothing unless he is pretected; unless you had all the apparatus of Government, a surgeon could not ride across a country to his patients — he would be robbed coming home." An invasion, moreover, would ruin half the people in trade in England, while the owners of the soil would only lose their rents while the invasion lasted, and where the invaders could reach to levy contributions. As to the proposition that a man's real income is to be measured by his proper expenditure, it is impossible to lay down any general rule respecting proper expenditure; but it would be hard to name a rule less in conformity with both the practice and the obligations of individuals than that adopted by Mr. Neate. Take the case of a professional man earning a thousand a year: An actuary, examined before Mr. Hume's Committee in 1852 as a witness who had given special attention to the valuation of professional incomes, considers this thousand a year as worth only seven years' purchase, or 7,000l., the interest of which sum in the 3 per cents would be 210l. Is it to be supposed for a moment that a barrister earning a thousand a year is bound to put by 790l., and to live on 210l. P As Mr. Mill puts the case generally:—"Owners of li expend; and thirdly, he can prudently expend only the interest of the sum which his source of income would fetch in the

From the consideration of equality of taxation as regards incomes of different amount and durability, Mr. Neate proceeds to consider it in its relation to different subjects of property, such as land and money. This leads to a special examination of the burdens on land; and Mr. Neate certainly deserves credit for surveying a department of the field of taxation which other economists have carefully, or carelessly, avoided. His lectures contain information which is not accessible elsewhere than in Blue-books, where ordinary readers are never likely to look for it. We cannot, however, admit the accuracy of all Mr. Neate's propositions in reference to this portion of the subject. The meaning of "land" in political economy is different, he observes, from that which it bears in the language of the law, in which the soil carries with it all that is built upon or fixed to it, usque ad ccelum. "In the language of political economy, land means that of which the value consists in its annual produce or capability of produce. Houses and buildings (on the other hand) are, in the eyes of the political economist, the signs and productions of commercial and professional industry and wealth, and of pecuniary accumulation, from whatever cause arising." He speaks of this as an important distinction. But would not land, by this definition, include not only the milebecow to which Mr. Disraeli compares it, but also shops and houses

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let for so much a year? And, not to mention the Bedford Level and all the reclaimed soil in the kingdom, is there not land in every country which is owned by families to whom it came by professional or commercial industry and wealth, or by pecuniary accumulation, of which it is the production and sign? Immediately after this correction of the legal vocabulary, we are surprised to find Mr. Neate deserting the principles of the political economist for those of the lawyer. It is urged, he says, that the poor-rate is an unequal burden upon landed property, since all property ought in justice to contribute to the support of the poor. To this he replies:—"But while the law remains as it is, we are bound to assume that it is right; the State at least, which has made the tax local, cannot admit, on the part of those who pay it, a plea that it ought to be general." But upon the same principle, since every tax is imposed by law, we are bound to assume that every tax is right, and all a political economist has got to do is to look at the Act of Parliament and say what the law is.

Mr. Neate argues for a special tax upon the rent of land, in con-

the Act of Parliament and say what the law is.

Mr. Neate argues for a special tax upon the rent of land, in consequence of its tendency to increase independently of any exertion or outlay on the part of the landlord; but he appears not to have weighed any of the serious objections to such special taxation. In the first place, if the future increase of rent has been foreseen by recent purchasers and sellers of land—and political economists have not left them in ignorance of the prospect—a special tax on rent would in every such case be an unequal tax on a particular investment. In the second place, those who bought land shortly before the imposition of the succession duties have been already subjected to a deduction from the produce of their investment which they did not take into account. But the gravest objection arises from the impossibility of distinguishing the natural increase of rent from the profit of agricultural outlay, and the discouragement which such a tax would oppose to the improvement of land. Although we find so much to differ from in Mr. Neate's Lectures, we readily admit that they are not without solid and unostentations merit.

ESQUIROS' ENGLISH AT HOME.

THE only fault of this book is its title. The words, The English at Home, would certainly, to an English reader, convey the idea of something different from what he will find M. Esquiros volumes to be. The essays contain a great deal which it will do both Frenchmen and Englishmen good to read, but the "English at Home" are just what M. Esquiros does not write about. The title would lead any Englishman to expect something about the domestic life of England, which is the very thing he will not find. M. Esquiros writes about our army, our gipsies, our fairs, our clubs, our theatres, our newspapers, but nothing at all about our homes. He is not one of those travellers who go into a country, lionize its capital, go to one or two frequented places elsewhere, and then think that they have seen the whole land. He has evidently been in many different parts of England, and has seen English life in various aspects; but, as far as his account goes, there is nothing to show that he has seen the inside either of an English manor-house or of an English parsonage. There is no mention of the Universities, no mention of the great manufacturing and commercial towns, none of those smaller cities and boroughs which still form no unimportant feature of the country. The book is therefore hardly, in the common sense of the word, an account of the "English at Home."

Home."

We say this as criticism wholly of the title, and not at all of the book itself. If M. Esquiros had written a formal work about England, we should say that there were several important deficiencies in his book. But he has not written a formal work about England, nor has he at all undertaken to describe English life in all its forms. What he has written is a number of essays in the Revue des Deux Mondes on such points about England and the English as specially struck him, or such as seemed best suited to answer his own purpose. He was in no way bound to write about everything, or to make his detached essays as exhaustive as a formal description of the country and its inhabitants. We have, therefore, no right to blame M. Esquiros for not treating this or that particular subject. And it is not to be wondered at if Englishmen of various pursuits should be able to catch him in a slip or two here and there in the special subjects of each. Nor is it any real objection that some of his matter is obviously secondhand. M. Esquiros is writing primarily, not for Englishsecondhand. M. Esquiros is writing primarily, not for Englishmen, but for Frenchmen, and he is writing with an object for which every Englishman must thank him. He is also not writing a book, but a series of articles. We must, therefore, judge him according to his own standard—one widely different from that of a political philosopher or a writer on statistics.

M. Esquiros, then, writes for French readers, as a friend of England, anxious to promote good will between the two nations, and to explain many matters which Frenchmen are apt to misunderstand. This object comes out most specially in those parts of his book which deal with military matters, and particularly with the "Volunteer Movement," whose course M. Esquiros has evidently

studied carefully. He looks upon the institution of the Volunteers as permanent, and expects a variety of important results to arise from it. England is no longer disarmed, or an unmilitary nation. Moreover, he looks for both social and physical results. The bodily strength of classes hitherto sedentary is to be increased, and social distinctions are to be in some degree diminished through the brotherhood of the rifle-ground. But of course the main result of the change is the different aspect which it gives to England in the face of other nations—a subject on which it is well to hear the judgment of so intelligent and so friendly a sojourner as M. Esquiros:—

lace of other mations—a subject on which it is well to hear the judgment of so intelligent and so friendly a sojourner as M. Esquiros:—

Will not the new force England has given birth to also exercise an influence on the foreign policy of the kingdom? Lord John Russell's recent circular on Italian affairs may aid us in answering this question. The movement, I am bound to say, was developed at first without any political after-thought, and solely to support the English Government in definding the country; but, while removing the true or imaginary danger of invasion, while showing statesmen that they had an armed nation at their back, the Volunteers also intend to supply the Government of Great Britain with the means of proving itself firm and worthy, though always moderate, in its relations with Europe. They say loudly that they wished to save their country the humiliation of courting strength.

The object of this inquiry was to dissipate certain errors as to the more or less disarmed state of England: these errors, I allow, were propagated by our neighbours themselves about a year ago, and I will not blame them for it, because nations are like men—they fall from the day when, believing themselves invincible, they defy destiny. If the English were afraid, they are no longer so, for, even supposing that the swarms of Volunteers, help-d by the regulars, did not succeed in checking an invading army, or blocking the road to London, an organized force would still be left in each town and village. To conquer England the English must be exterminated. Behind England would remain Scotland, with her citadels of granite, built by the hand of Nature, and her rude children, who would descend from the mountains like an avalanche. Great Britain would recover from her wounds, and then woe to the conqueror!

France, therefore, will do well to adhere to her commercial treaty with England. I do not write this for the French Government, which, of course, knows what opinion to form of the forces grouped beyond the Channel, and which

The modern Volunteers carry back M. Esquiros to the old Volunteers of 1803. He goes to see the grand review of 1860, and finds an old gentleman who gives him a full account of the grand review fifty-seven years earlier. We never feel quite sure about M. Esquiros' English informants, whether they are real persons, or whether they are simply a Homeric ric called up to give more dramatic effect to the occasion. Certainly they make longer speeches, and word them in more rhetorical language, than is the wont of Englishmen in private discourse. But we must allow something for speeches first reported by M. Esquiros in French, and then translated by Mr. Wraxall into English.

something for speeches first reported by M. Esquiros in French, and then translated by Mr. Wraxall into English.

The military part of the book will be the most generally interesting just at present. But M. Esquiros deals with a great number of other subjects, and he gets together a great deal of curious information, much of which will often be new even to Englishmen. As he has fulfilled, in his Second Series, the promise of continuation which he gave in what, if it be not a bull, we may call the concluding Preface of his First Series, we hope he may still go on telling us what he thinks of us. As yet M. Esquiros seems to have mainly seen London, the military establishments elsewhere, and some particular aspects of English life as displayed at particular times. But what he has examined he seems certainly to have examined to the bottom. He wants to know about the gipsies and about the strolling players; so he fairly goes and fraternizes with them, and sees and hears a great deal which will be just as new to most Englishmen as to any Frenchman. He knows a great deal about the minor trades of London, and about hop-picking, paper-making, and salt mining in other parts of the country, which is certainly known to few of ourselves save those whom business or curiosity leads to a more special knowledge of those particular crafts. He has got up our theatres, our race-courses, our rag-and-bottle shops, and all of them more minutely than most Englishmen who do not specially devote themselves to those several lines. He is as learned in chimney-sweeps and shoe-blacks as Lord Shafteebury himself. The clubs of London he has studied as a matter of archeology as much as of modern society—he has put together all that he could find about their earlier days, from the Spectator, from Macaulay's sout, in all these things, much which a native either does not know or does not think about. He who is "in the line" takes everything for granted, and does not remark upon what seems to him a matter

^{*} The English at Home. By Alphonse Esquiros. Translated and Edited by Lascelles Wraxall. Two volumes. London: Chapman & Hall. 1861.

The English at Home. Essays from the "Revue des Deux Mondes." Second Series. By Alphonse Esquiros. Translated by Lascelles Wraxall. 1862.

of course. He who is not in the line has far less will, and far less opportunity, to find out about other men's lines than a stranger who is avowedly getting all of them up. In every branch that he touches on, an inquirer like M. Esquiros will give some information, and will do still more to stimulate thought, while each class must forgive a few slips in the details of its own special department.

But, after all that M. Esquiros has seen, he has really done little more than graze the surface of English life. The "English at home" he has not yet seen, or, at least, has not yet written about. We heartily wish he would go and look a little deeper into our ways, as we are sure that he could do it without violating any of those sanctities of private life about which some travellers are so reckless. M. Esquiros has still something to see. Speaking of the performance of She Sloops to Conquer at the Haymarket, he says:

There was, however, one character which stood out from the general exaggeration with the colour of life and local truth: it was that of Tony Lumpkin, performed by Buckstone. The actor is too old for the part: but you find in him the country Squire, such as he existed a century ago, and such, I fear, as he still exists in some rural districts of England. This great spelled child, who is more than twenty years of age, and does not know how to write, a haunter of taverns, a lover of horses, dogs, and cock-fights, trusting to his fortune to cover and excuse his ignorance, rough in his manners, jovial, malicious, but good-hearted withal, is, thanks to Goldsmith and Buckstone, one of the most excellent paintings of manners the English stage can offer.

offer.

Now, such odd things do turn up that we cannot positively deny that some rural district of England may contain such a prodigy as a squire who cannot write. Certainly, an assize court a few years ago did reveal the existence of such a monster in a Welsh county. A defendant to a suit appeared, who, as the owner of some two or three thousand a year, and the son of a county magistrate—happily, not a magistrate himself—was doubtless entitled to be called a "squire," but who nevertheless could not write. But to say that this sort of squire "exists in some rural districts" implies at least that there are several of the breed. We have always looked on our Welshman as a sort of dodo, standing altogether by himself. It would be quite a point for M. Esquiros to look into, whether he really has any congeners. whether he really has any congeners.

whether he really has any congeners.

M. Esquiros begins his inquiries with a survey of English geology and ethnology. He is not very strong in the latter department. He is not so much positively inaccurate as weak in the way of repeating after others what he does not fully enter into. Still, even this may be useful to M. Esquiros' countrymen, who generally find it so difficult to understand the quasi-nationality of Scotland, Wales, and Ireland, and who, if they grasp it at all, are tempted to exaggerate the diversity, and to look on the United Kingdom as something like the Austrian Empire. M. Esquiros, we are glad to see, knows that cromlechs were tombs, and not altars, though it is somewhat rash to assume that they must necessarily be the tombs of Celts. It is probably Mr. Wraxall who is guilty twice—therefore, not purely by accident of who is guilty twice—therefore, not purely by accident of turning the name of the great primæval monument of Kent into Kits City House.

M. Esquiros' inquiries into the gipsies are very curious, and many will read with interest his accounts of Richardson—not the novelist, but the showman—and of the (in later days) better known name of Wombwell. Altogether, whether on grave or trifling matters, we shall be always ready to welcome more of his sketches of ourselves.

RAVENSHOE.

RAVENSHOE.*

M.R. HENRY KINGSLEY'S serial story Ravenshoe has come to an end in Macmillan's Magazine, and invested itself in the ordinary habiliments of a three-volume novel. The juncture of this inevitable metamorphosis of a successful tale is one at which fair criticism becomes, for the moment, very difficult indeed. When the growing boy, whose personality in a tunic and bare legs is perfectly familiar to his circle of acquaintance, suddenly appears on a Sunday morning in a jacket and trousers—or when the short frock of the growing girl, whom one has known from her childhood, blooms out at once into the ampler and more sweeping skirts of the young lady—the novel aspect of a well-known object renders a just appreciation of its intrinsic fitness or elegance perhaps less easy than if that object had never been known under the old shape at all. It is not until our eyes are more or less familiarized with the new state of things that we can rightly compare the general effect and appearance of our newly jacketed or newly gowned young friends with other specimens of the classes of girls and boys into which they have respectively risen. So it is with the sexial novel of which we have watched the growth from its first chapter, when it ceases growing, and bursts into a complete work. We have to analyse it from a fresh point of view, and determine its merits by a new test. The qualities which tend to secure a chronic interest in the story published by monthly numbers are by no means necessarily those which must win over the critical sense of a reader who reads the three volumes connectedly. As long as the nonth's chapter is sufficiently seasoned with incidents, brilliant conversations, or even picturesque descriptions, to engage attention for itself and itself only, the consecutiveness and proba-

bility of the successive numbers may be very slight indeed, without shocking the perception of an intermittent audience. And if the stories of a magazine are expected to carry on the interest of that audience through the serious duty of skimming the essays on all subjects which fill the remainder of its heterogeneous pages, the story-tellers will find great difficulty in resisting the temptation to paint up to their situation. A quiet chapter, written for its proper place in the novel, when imbedded amid the padding of its serial, looks as thinly coloured and undertoned as the conscientions and accurate copy of nature which we have admired in the artist's studio does when it is hung between two gorgeously tinted rivals upon the Academy walls. The habit of centering the whole interest of a magazine in the stories which are successively advertised at the railway stations as the current attraction for the travelling purchaser, tends to spoil at once the editor, the writer, tised at the railway stations as the current attraction for the travelling purchaser, tends to spoil at once the editor, the writer, the critic, and the general reader. Some palliation of a growing imbecility of the public taste might be found in the administration of a kind of temperance pledge to all magazine buyers, by which they should be bound seriously to read and digest all the hard-headed and useful articles of the number, before entering upon the lighter ones. We would gladly advise a total abstinence from the stories until they were completed, were it not obvious that in that case very few magazines would be either read or purchased at all. chased at all.

Ravenshoe has not passed unscathed through the dangers incidental to the method of its composition. There are situations in the story verging on the improbable, characters of doubtful texture, and here and there touches of that melodramatic kind of texture, and here and there touches of that melodramatic kind of mannerism which seems to address itself more easily to the volatile magazine-public than to the constant and serious novel-reader. In short, Mr. Henry Kingsley is not absolutely free from the imputation of being a "rollicking" writer. We do not mean that he is in any degree prone to the ostentatious vulgarity of unduly displaying his own personality in his pages merely to catch the attention and sympathy of the public for his story, which is the worst form of rollicking. The chronicler of Charles Ravenshoe's history is too thoroughly an educated gentleman to be caught in the use of this favourite artifice of literary cockneyism. But there are many shades of method in telling a story between the extreme limits of a flagrant rollicking and a quiet narrative style; and where the story itself is so full of merit as Ravenshoe, the more the style in which it is told approaches to the dignity of simplicity, the better will it be for the enduring popularity of the story.

Ravenshoe is a better novel than Geoffry Hamlyn, in so far as

Ravenshoe is a better novel than Geoffry Hamlyn, in so far as it maintains a more continuous chain of interest. A strain upon the novel-reading faculties is involved in the obligation to follow one's heroes and heroines not only to the Antipodes, but across a jump of a good many years from youth into middle life. Many of the characters of the first volume of a story so constructed are found to have become practically unnecessary, and even to have been forgotten by the author himself, before the end of the third. been forgotten by the autnor numers, sector as the first the principal characters are so modified in the progress of time and circumstance as to affect us with a sense of duplicity of continuing unity. There is no obvious reason, for time and circumstance as to affect us with a sense of duplicity rather than of continuing unity. There is no obvious reason, for instance, in Geoffry Hamlyn, why we should identify the enthusiastic damsel of the quiet English village with the solid matron of the Australian sheep farm, or the fascinating young scoundrel who carries her off in Vol. I. with the hardened grizly bushranger who reappears on the scene in Vol. III. The reader, who is not conscious of being himself appreciably older at the end of a novel than at the beginning, feels that he is made to live too fast by cramming together within so short a compass the emotions developed as he stands at two so entirely different points of view. It is true that such may be the course of real life; but then in real life there are no spectators belonging to this planet who can look on from a position of such relative immobility as that enjoyed by the novel-reader in regard of the adventures of the novel. We are able to take up the thread of a partly acted drama and follow it to the end; but if the curtain falls for some score of years between the acts, we cannot but feel, when it rises again, that the interest has to be created afresh, and that the plot, the actors, and the audience, are in truth all equally new.

In Ravenshoe all the introductory part of the drama is worked

In Ravenshoe all the introductory part of the drama is worked through much more concisely than in Geoffry Hamlyn. The key of the whole story is to be found in the matrimonial embroilments of an earlier generation of the family of Ravenshoe; but the history of that generation is not dwelt upon at greater length than is absolutely requisite to explain the situation that afterwards arises, and to provide instruments for the working out of the problem. The reader is not called upon for any absorbing personal interest in the character or fortunes of Densil Ravenshoe, the last predecessor of the Ravenshoes who are the central figures of the story. Nor is he tempted to follow the steps by which the mutual cessor of the Ravenshoes who are the central figures of the story. Nor is he tempted to follow the steps by which the mutual inclination of a youthful Lady Ascot and Lord Saltire has calmed itself down into the Platonic attachment and affectionate gallantry of their old age. For the purposes of the novel they are there as connecting links with the Ravenshoes that are past, and as happening to be among the main unravellers of the destiny of the Ravenshoes that are on the stage. The incidental hint of their own romance belongs to an antenatal age with which the reader has practically nothing to do. As clever studies of character, they are sufficiently pleasant and natural personages to attract a fair share of attention. But the active interest of the story circulates round the younger generation alone; and Mr. Henry Kingsley has

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^{*} Ravenshoe. By Henry Kingsley, Author of "Geoffry Hamlyn." 3 vols.

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told his story in such a manner as to keep up that interest very strongly all through.

As Ravenshoe has been for so long gradually unrolling itself before the eyes of the reading public, we do not feel bound to analyse its plan or epitomize its details. We have said that some of the events might be characterized as verging upon improbability; and we night say that the sequence of events upon which the whole genealogical plot turns is a very highly improbable combination indeed. That a suppressed marriage in one generation of Ravenshoes, involving the right to the whole family estates, should have been followed in the next generation by a secret change of two children at nurse, which practically, but unconsciously reversed the injustice of the former proceeding—at least for one of the children of the person whose right of inheritance had been originally violated—is certainly an extraordinary instance of the compensations of fortune if looked upon as an historical fact, and a bold and ingenious piece of poetical justice if considered as a fiction. There is equal boldness and ingenuity in the plot by which the Jesuit father confessor of the family is enabled to use his knowledge of the double mysatery for his own ends, by letting the light fall upon the latter half of it only, while the key to the earlier half lies unavailable in the hands of his opponents, for want of the knowledge where the requisite evidence is to be procured. But there is so much vividness in the circumstantial pictures of the story, that the reader is hardly conscious of the daring of the author in the use of machinery at once so slight and so intricate, until he has come to the end. And when the reader turns into the critic, and reviews his general impressions by a more particular investigation, he will not be inclined to deny that Mr. Henry Kingsley has certainly the power of constructing a story which hangs well together, whatever be the quality of the pegs upon which it is hung.

But the power of telling a story is not Mr. Henry Kingsley's only merit as a writer. Like his brother, Mr. Charles Kingsley, he has the eye and the imagination of a poet; and although guiltless (for all that is proved) of ever having written a verse, he is also gifted with a strong poetical power of expression in prose. He is able to put the details of a great scene upon his canvas with a clear and vivid picturesqueness which does not interfere with the simplicity of the general effect; and he groups and sketches the figures of the scene well and effectively. He paints the seaccasts of the West of England, and the fishers of those coasts, with the truth of one who knows and loves them, as Mr. Hook paints the fishermen of Sussex, and the short waves of the Channel. Mr. Henry Kingsley has seen the wonders of sea and land in many latitudes, and has already shown in Geoffry Hamiym the faculty of putting forcibly upon paper what he has seen. But one of the deepest tests of the power of description, both of character and seenery, is the truth of the touch with which a writer draws that with which he has been familiar from his childhood. To photograph Cornish fishermen, or Northern operatives, or Midland poachers, in a book so truly that the reader who has not lived among them, and the reader who has, can equally look into their minds and see that their portraits are true, argues an instinctive sympathy, and an intuitive power of selection and grasp, which are among the most distinctive qualities of a good novel-writer. There is a wide difference between the mere faculty of sketching a provincial manner with superficial accuracy, and that subtle insight into the inner nature of which the manner is the expression, which gives such a value to some of the works of Miss Evans and Mrs. Gaskell. Mr. Henry Kingsley has not wandered long enough among the back-settlements of Australia to forget the freemasonry of the Western counties.

But if the author of Ravenshoe writes like a poet, he also writes, or wishes to write, like

among the back-settlements of Australia to forget the freemasonry of the Western counties.

But if the author of Ravenshoe writes like a poet, he also writes, or wishes to write, like an experienced man of the world. He displays an obvious intention to interweave in his story as many varieties of human character as can well be fitted into it, and to trace the reaction of each character upon the thread of the story very accurately. Upon the whole, he has worked out this problem with considerable success. The moral of the book is eminently the moral of a good-natured man of the world — that a good fellow, in fustian or in broadcloth, in high or low estate, engaged in the highest or lowest, the most earnest or the most fiviolous pursuits, is always a good fellow. In illustration of this principle, the big, burly, sporting savage Lord Welter, after behaving, through most of the book, like a consummate blackguard in every shape and on every possible occasion, is rescued by a kind of tour de force from utter condemnation at the close, and rehabilitated among the list of good fellows with whom the reader is expected to sympathize. We think that, for the sake of making things pleasant, Mr. Henry Kingsley has carried the application of his principle a hittle too far. In Thackeray's Vanity Fair there are few conceptions more skilful than the character of Rawdon Crawley, redeemed from absolute iniquity by a few slight touches of kindly feeling and good fellowship. But the Lord Welter of Ravenshoe is drawn as a colder, cleverer, more calculating, and more unscrupulous blackguard than Rawdon; and if we concede to Mr. Kingsley the best right to judge how far the creatures of his own pen are susceptible of refornation — and, therefore, to Lord Welter the right to behave better than might have been expected of him — we are still justified in speaking of Lord Welter ourselves as we find him altogether, and asserting that he is not a good fellow bevord skin depth at the end of the book any more than at the

beginning. The liberality or partiality of the author in treating him as such is a charity which verges on cynicism. This is the only quarrel we have with Mr. Henry Kingsley.

THIERRY ON THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

THIERRY ON THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

A MEDEE THIERRY has evinced a tenacity of character unusual among his volatile countrymen. From the day when he inscribed to his elder brother, the distinguished author of the Conquest of England, the first edition of his History of the Gauls, he has devoted himself with unswerving constancy to the elucidation of one most interesting subject—the foreign affairs of the Roman Empire. The History of the Gauls is, for the most part, entwined with that of the action of Rome in the north of Europe, and Thierry's general work upon this subject was fitty followed. and Thierry's general work upon this subject was fitly follow by a special account of the administration of Rome in Gaul. I by a special account of the administration of Rome in Gaul. His monograph on Attila was adapted still further to elucidate the character of Roman civilization in the provinces. His last work, now before us, which purports to be a picture of the Roman Empire, is a summary of the results of Roman conquest, and carries the reader from the urbs quadrata, the rectangular city or encampment on the Palatine, to the frontiers of the realm of Augustin and Trajan on the Atlas and the Carpathians, the Tyne, and the Euphrates. His earliest publication was a narrative of a particular Roman conquest; his second, a specimen of Roman administration; his last sums up the theory of the Roman Empire in general. By his devotion to a single subject, wide and varied as it is, the author has deserved to hold a place in the highest rank of contemporary historians. If inferior to his brother Augustin in originality and imagination, if second to Guizot in philosophical penetration, he is much superior to the one in accuracy and soher judgment, and to the other in animation.

The younger Thierry has another merit, rare among the literati

The younger Thierry has another merit, rare among the literati of the Second Empire. He can write a whole volume on Roman History without an allusion to modern France. Most English readers are tired by this time of the pretended historians of the day, who would have us believe that history can reproduce itself after the lapse of fifteen or eighteen centuries, and confuse our knowledge of the ancient times by insisting on superficial analogies with the present. It is high time that the Second Empire should be estimated on its own merits, and not prejudged, for good or for evil, by mere names and shadows.

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the present. It is high time that the Second Empire should be estimated on its own merits, and not prejudged, for good or for evil, by mere names and shadows.

Roman history, it has been often asserted, presents us with the most striking and, perhaps, the only complete instance of a recorded rise and progress, decline and dissolution, of a nation. If ever the often presumed analogy between the life of a people and the life of a human being has been actually realized, here, it is said, is a conspicuous example. Often as such an analogy has been presumed, it has been as often sneered down. Doubtless it is true that, physically, no such analogy can exist. No one supposes that the physical life of a people can perish; nor, indeed, can it be born. Descent of blood continues and must continue, in omae volubilis evum. The maintainers of such an analogy hold, we imagine, a different view from what is so flippantly set aside. They mean that every people is generally distinguished by some leading idea, some characteristic principle of action—determined sometimes by local circumstances, by geographical position, or climate, by its political condition, and that of its neighbours, by its religious conceptions, its social aspirations—which gives a colour to its history, waxing and waning in a regular progress throughout it, until, its inward force being exhausted, or its outward force overborne, the moral identity of the people itself becomes lost or obliterated. In this view Roman history presents undoubtedly a peculiar unit, and completeness. The principle of Roman national Hife consists in the appetency for expansion. This expansion we understand in its proper sense, not as a mere aggregation of conquests subjected to a central rule, but as the absorption of the conquerors and the conquered upon one another, which pervades it. No nation, the ancients themselves observed, imparted its polity so freely to its subjects as the Roman; and no nation, it was not less frequently remarked, accepted so freely in return the ideas an

^{*} Tableau de l'Empire Romain. Par M. Amédée Thierry. Paris: 1862.

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called, is the more curious from the analogy it bears in some respects to the war new reging in America. The Southern States of America, indeed, are fighting for separation from a commonwealth with which they have hitherto been united; while the Allies, or Italian nations, contended nominally for admission or incorporation with one which jealously excluded them. But, in fact, they had been actually united before on unequal and disparaging terms. The Italians bore the burden of an alliance which, as they complained, was not an equal union; just as the Southerners now complain that they have been unequally yoked with their more powerful and exclusive neighbours. The Italians sought a more complete and intimate connexion, by which they would acquire certain valuable privileges hitherto withheld from them. The Southerners think, more wisely perhaps, that no union between them and the North can henceforth be equal or secure. The Romans succeeded, from their strict unity, if not from superior courage or more abundant resources, in finally crushing the Italians; but no sooner had they thus succeeded in the field than they found it necessary to concede in council the very points for which so much blood had been vainly shed. They offered to the conquered enemy, of their own accord, the actual terms for which he had contended. The Italians were finally admitted to a full and equal participation in the franchise from which they had been excluded, and in all the honours and emoluments which flowed from it. And so, it seems certain that, if the North were to succeed in crushing the rebellion of the South, its first act, after sheathing the sword, must be to grant the separation it now so violently opposes. sheathing the sword, must be to grant the separation it now so opposes

sheathing the sword, must be to grant the separation it now so violently opposes.

But the political lesson we draw from this contest does not stop here. Although the incorporation of the Italians with the Romans now took place, and added materially to the strength of the united people, the wars which had been waged to prevent it proved directly fatal to the liberty of the State. The armies which had been levied by exhausting efforts to prolong this futile struggle could not be disbanded. The chiefs who had risen to their head would not descend to the level of plain citizens. The political wranglings of the Gracchi and the Drusi in the forum were succeeded, at the conclusion of the Social War, by the military conflicts of Sulla and Marius, of Cinna and Fimbria, in the field; and the first of the Civil wars left a seed of political animosities which bore fruit again and again in the second and the third. The contests of Cæsar and Pompey, of Octavius and Antony, were derived directly from the fatal legacy of the Social War—a debauched soldiery and a restless tribunate. If Rome had had the wisdom and virtue to yield the point in dispute with the Italians without a war, it seems quite possible that she might have lapsed peaceably and prosperously into the state of constitutional freedom under a limited chiefship which had once been the aspiration of Scipio and became the vain regret of Cicero.

But the law of expansion by which Rome was governed could be the set to expent the Roughly head was a second of the contest to expent the restless the possible that the law of expansion by which Rome was governed could be the second of the contest to expent the restless the possible that the law of expansion by which Rome was governed could be the second of the contest to the second of the contest to the contest to the second of the contest of the cont

under a limited chiefship which had once been the aspiration of Scipio and became the vain regret of Cicero.

But the law of expansion by which Rome was governed could not cease to operate. The Republic held vast possessions beyond Italy; and from these possessions also there rose in due time a cry for incorporation. The policy of Cæsar and Octavius was a response to this cry. The battles of Pharsalia and Philippi crowned it with success. But in this case the success of the provinces was the salvation of the metropolis. The good fortune of Rome again prevailed over the suicidal policy of her self-constituted rulers. The oligarchy which was battled on those fields had been bent on governing the State on the same principles of exclusion which had been routed at least twice before in the course of its history. Again, the vital principle of expansion triumphed. The system of the Empire raised the provinces more and more to political equality with Italy. But for this good fortune Rome paid highly. The victory of the Italians had cost her the Civil wars—the triumph of the provinces cost her her freedom. The Cæsars ruled by the swords of an army of foreigners, of soldiers of foreign birth; for the legions were henceforth recruited entirely from beyond the Alps, though Italian or Roman privileges became widely extended to the soil of the provinces. The ruling power, the armed men, had no sympathy with the forms of the republic, and the veil of constitutional government which the Cæsars threw over their autocracy was but loosely worn as an indulgence to the Senate. Rome had now become a despotic monarchy; but though she had lost her freedom, she had extended her sympathies, and had advanced the sense of nationality from the heart to the frontiers of her empire.

At last, under the tyrant Caracalla, the whole civilized world was

her empire.

At hast, under the tyrant Caracalla, the whole civilized world was legally constituted a single nation. But there remained another step to be taken for the complete assimilation of the Roman races in one body. While the public law of Rome was undergoing this progressive expansion, her private law was gradually subjected to similar modifications, not less complete, though far less conspicuous on the page of history. The earliest Roman jurisprudence determined the religious and social usages of the patrician or genuine Roman only. The status of the plebeian was recognised by castom and gloss before it was sanctioned by any written enactment. But the vestiges of the primitive monopoly survived in innumerable forms and phrases ill explained and little regarded down to a late period of political development. The laws of the Twelve Tables continued to mark for ages a real practical distinction between the citizen and provincial. At home, where the citizens vastly preponderated over the foreign sojourners or visitors, the practor might persist in recognising this exclusive code as the sole standard of law and procedure. But in the

provinces the case was altered. Roman law might hold good as between citizens; but the subjects of the proconsul were mostly foreigners, living under laws and customs of their own. Upon them the proconsul did not attempt to impose Roman law; for, among other reasons, Roman law was mainly founded on religious ideas in which the foreigners could not participate, and to which it never entered into the head of the Roman governor to introduce them. But it was necessary to invent some general system of law. ideas in which the foreigners could not participate, and to which it never entered into the head of the Roman governor to introduce them. But it was necessary to invent some general system of law under which the Roman and the provincial might meet on common ground. This was discovered in the Law of Nations—the invention of the Roman tribunals, at home and abroad, which tempered the specialities of Quiritary law by general principles of equity. This Law of Nations had, in fact, been growing up from the first contact of the conqueror with the conquered Slowly, and almost unconsciously, it modified the glosses of the jurisconsults and the decisions of the practors. In the time of Cicero, Roman law was in the crisis of transition—a crisis which lasted, indeed, for two or more centuries, but of which we almost entirely lose sight during the period of the Cæsars and Antonines. When Roman jurisprudence emerged from this obscurity into the full blaze of the Institutes of Gaius, and the codes of Theodosius and his successors, the exclusive principles of Quiritary law had been almost wholly obliterated, and the Roman people, now embracing every free man of the Empire, was subjected to the mild and equable pressure of a common and uniform system. Thus, with the one great exception of the slave population, the whole civilized world was reduced or elevated to a uniform status in the eye of the law, and the principle of expansion had been carried to its full extent. The idea of the Roman polity, which distinguishes it from all ancient and, perhaps, from all modern politics, had been fulfilled. The Roman people had run through its destined cycle, and its moral progress, which, in its life, had reached its consummation. In this sense, as we have said, the life of the Roman nation may fairly be compared with the life of the individual man.

THE PARSEES.

Second Notice.

THE so-called Fire-worshippers certainly do not worship the fire, and they naturally object to a name which seems to place them on a level with mere idolaters. All they admit is, that in their youth they are taught to face some luminous object while worshipping God (p. 7), and that they regard the fire, like other great natural phenomena, as an emblem of the Divine power (p. 26). But they assure us that they never ask assistance or blessings from an unintelligent material object, nor is it even considered necessary to turn the face to any emblem whatever in praying to Ormuzd. The most honest, however, among the Parsis, and those who would most emphatically protest against the idea of their ever paying divine honours to the sun or the fire, admit the existence of some kind of national instinct — an indescribable awe felt by every Parsi with regard to light and fire. The fact that the Parsis are the only Eastern people who entirely abstain from smoking is very significant; and we know that most of them would rather not blow out a candle if they could help it. It is difficult to analyse such a feeling, but it seems, in some respects, similar to that which many Christians have about the Cross. They do not worship the cross, but they have peculiar feelings of reverence for it, and it is intimately connected with some of their most sacred acts.

But although most Parsis would be very ready to tell us what

But although most Parsis would be very ready to tell us what they do not worship, there are but few who could give a straightforward answer if asked what they do worship and believe. Their priests, no doubt, would say that they worship Ormuzd and believe in Zoroaster, his prophet; and they would appeal to the Zendavesta, as containing the Word of God, revealed by Ormuzd to Zoroaster. If more closely pressed, however, they would have to admit that they cannot understand one word of the sacred writings in which they profess to believe nor could they give any to admit that they cannot understand one word of the sacred writings in which they profess to believe, nor could they give any reason why they believe Zoroaster to have been a true prophet, and not an impostor. "As a body," says Dadabhai Naoroji, "the priests are not only ignorant of the duties and objects of their own profession, but are entirely uneducated, except that they are able to read and write, and that, also, often very imperfectly. They do not understand a single word of their prayers and recitations, which are all in the old Zend language."

What, then, do the laity know about religion? What makes the old teaching of Zoroaster so dear to them that, in spite of all differences of opinion among themselves, young and old seem equally determined never to join any other religious community? Incredible as it may sound, we are told by the best authority, by an enlightened yet strictly orthodox Parsi, that there is hardly a man or a woman who could give an account of the faith that is in them. "The whole religious education of a Parsi child consists in a constant part of the part o them. "The whole religious education of a Parsi child consists in preparing by rote a certain number of prayers in Zend, without understanding a word of them; the knowledge of the doctrines of their religion being left to be picked up from casual conversation." A Parsi, in fact, hardly knows what his faith is. The Zendavesa is to him a scaled book; and though there is a Guzerati translation of it, that translation is not made from the original, but from

[.] The Pursee Religion. By Dadabhai Naoroji. Liverpool: 1861.

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s Pehlevi paraphrase, nor is it recognised by the priests as an authorized version. Till about five-and-twenty years ago, there was no book from which a Parsi of an inquiring mind could gather the principles of his religion. At that time, and, as it would seem, chiefly in order to counteract the influence of Christian missionaries, a small Dialogue was written in Guzerati — a kind of catechism, giving, in the form of questions and answers, the most important tenets of Parsiism. We shall quote some passages from this Dialogue, as translated by Dadabhai Naoroji. The subject of it is thus described:—

A few Questions and Answers to acquaint the Children of the holy Zarthosti Community with the Subject of the Mazdiashna Religion, i. c. the Worship of God.

Question. Whom do we, of the Zarthosti community, believe in ?
Answer. We believe in only one God, and do not believe in an

Amber. We bettere in only one cast, and

Who is that one God?

A. The God who created the heavens, the earth, the angels, the stars, the
sm, the moon, the fire, the water, or all the four elements, and all things of
the two worlds; that God we believe in. Him we worship, him we invoke,
him we adore.

Q. Do we not believe in any other God?

A. Whoever believes in any other God but this, is an infidel, and shall
suffer the punishment of hell.

Q. What is the form of our God?

A. Our God has neither face nor form, colour nor shape, nor fixed place.
There is no other like him. He is himself singly such a glory that we
cannot praise or describe him; nor our mind comprehend him.

So far, no one could object to this Catechism, and it must be clear that the Dualism, which is generally mentioned as the distinguishing feature of the Persian religion—the belief in two Gods, Ormuzd, the principle of good, and Ahriman, the principle of eril—is not countenanced by the modern Parsis. Whether it exists in the Zendavesta is another question, which, however, cannot be discussed at present. not be discussed at present.

The Catechism continues:

Q. What is our religion?
A. Our religion is "Worship of God."
Q. Whence did we receive our religion?
A. God's true prophet—the true Zurthest (Zoroaster) Asphantamán meshirwán—brought the religion to us from God.

Anoshirwan—brought the religion to us from God.

Here it is curious to observe that no question should have been asked as to the claim of Zoroaster to be considered a true prophet. He is not treated as a divine being, not even as the son of Ormuzd. Plato, indeed, speaks of Zoroaster as the son of Oromazes (Alc. i. p. 122 a), but this is a mistake, not countenanced, as far as we are aware, by any of the Parsi writings, whether ancient or modern. With the Parsis, Zoroaster is simply a wise man, a prophet favoured by God, and admitted into God's immediate presence; but all this, on his own showing only, and without any supernatural credentials, except some few miracles recorded of him in books of doubtful authority. This shows, at all events, how little the Parsis have been exposed to controversial discussions; for, as this is so weak a point in their system that it would have invited the attacks of every opponent, we may be sure that the Dustoors would have framed some argument in defence, if such defence had ever been needed.

The next extract from the Catechism treats of the canonical books:—

Q. What religion has our prophet brought us from God?

A. The disciples of our Prophet have recorded in several books that religion. Many of these books were destroyed during Alexander's conquest; the remainder of the books were preserved with great care and respect by the Sasanian Kings. Of these again, the greater portion were destroyed at the Mahommedan conquest by Khalif Omar, so that we have now very few books remaining; viz. the Vandidad, the Vazanhei, the Visparvad, the Kherdeh Aresta, the Vistapy Nusk, and a few Pehlevi books. Resting our faith upon these few books, we now remain devoted to our good Mazdiashna religion. We consider these books as heavenly books, because God sent the tidings of these books to us through the holy Zurthost.

Here, again, we see theological science in its infancy. "We consider these books as heavenly books because God sent the tidings of these books to us through the holy Zurthost," is not very powerful logic. It would have been more simple to say, "We consider them heavenly books because we consider them heavenly books." However, whether heavenly or not, these few books exist. They form the only basis of the Zoroastrian religion, and the only source from which we derive any authentic information as to its origin, its history, and its real character.

That the Parsis are of a tolerant character with regard to such of their doctrines as are not of vital importance, may be seen from the following extract:—

Q. Whose descendants are we?

A. Of Gayomars. By his progeny was Persia populated.
Q. Was Gayomars the first man?

A. According to our religion he was so, but the wise men of our community, of the Chinese, the Hindus, and several other nations, dispute the assertion, and say that there was human population on the earth before Gayomars.

The moral precepts which are embodied in this Catechism do the highest credit to the Parsis:—

Q. What commands has God sent us through his prophet, the exalted Zurthost?

A. To know God as one; to know the prophet, the exalted Zurthost, as the true prophet; to believe the religion and the Avesta brought by him as true beyond all manner of doubt; to believe in the goodness of God; not to dis-

obey any of the commands of the Mazdiashna religion; to avoid evil deeds; to exert for good deeds; to pray five times in the day; to believe on the recksuing and justice on the fourth morning after death; to hope for heaven and to fear hell; to consider doubtless the day of general destruction and resurrection; to remember always that God has done what he willed, and shall do what he wills; to face some luminous object while worshipping God.

Then follow several paragraphs which are clearly directed against Christian Missionaries, and more particularly against the doctrine of vicarious sacrifice and prayer:—

Some deceivers, [the Catechism says,] with the view of acquiring exalta-tion in this world, have set themselves up as prophets, and, going among the labouring and ignorant people, have persuaded them that, "if you commit sin, I shall intercede for you, I shall plead for you, I shall save you," and thus deceive them; but the wise among the people know the deceit.

This clearly refers to Christian missionaries, but whether Roman Catholic or Protestant is difficult to say. The answer given by the Parsis is curious and significant:—

"If anyone commit sin," they reply, "under the belief that he shall be saved by somebody, both the deceiver as well as the deceived shall be damned to the day of Rastá Khez. . . . There is no saviour. In the other world you shall receive the return according to your actions. . . . Your saviour is your deeds, and God himself. He is the pardoner and the giver. If you repent your sins and reform, and if the Great Judge consider you worthy of pardon, or would be merciful to you, He alone can and will save you."

repent your sins and reform, and if the Great Judge consider you worthy of pardon, or would be merciful to you, He alone can and will save you."

It would be a mistake to suppose that the whole doctrine of the Parsis is contained in the short Guzerati Catechism, translated by Dadabhai Naoroji, still less in the fragmentary extracts here given. Their sacred writings, the Yama, Vispered, and Vendidad, the productions of much earlier ages, contain many ideas, both religious and mythological, which belong to the past, to the childhood of our race, and which no educated Parsi could honestly profess to believe in. This difficulty of reconciling the more enlightened faith of the present generation with the mythological phraseology of their old sacred writings is solved by the Parsis in a very simple manner. They do not, like Roman Catholics, prohibit the reading of the Zendavesta; nor do they, like Protestants, encourage a critical study of their sacred texts. They simply ignore the originals of their sacred writings. They repeat them in their prayers without attempting to understand them, and they acknowledge the insufficiency of every translation of the Zendavesta that has yet been made, either in Pehlevi, Sanskrit, Guzerati, French, or German. Each Parsi has to pick up his religious abest he may. Till lately, even the Catechism did not form a necessary part of a child's religious education. Thus the religious belief of the present Parsi communities is reduced to two or three fundamental doctrines; and these, though professedly resting on the teaching of Zoroaster, receive their real sanction from a much higher authority. A Parsi believes in One God, to whom he addresses his prayers. His morality is comprised in these words—pure thoughts, pure words, pure deeds. Believing in the punishment of vice and the reward of virtue, he trusts for pardon to the mercy of God. There is a charm, no doubt, in so short a creed; and, if the whole of Zoroaster's teaching were confined to this, there would be more truth in what his fo

If now we ask again, how is it that neither Christians, nor Hindus, nor Mahommedans have had any considerable success in converting the Parsis, and why even the more enlightened members of that small community, though fully aware of the many weak points of their own theology, and deeply impressed with the excellence of Christian religion, morals, and general civilization, scorn the idea of ever migrating from the sacred ruins of their ancient faith, we are able to discovere research they are able to havely excellence of Christian religion, morals, and general civilization, scorn the idea of ever migrating from the sacred ruins of their ancient faith, we are able to discover some reasons; though they are hardly sufficient to account for so extraordinary a fact. First, the very compactness of the modern Parsi creed accounts for the tenacity with which the exilea of Western India cling to it. A Parsi is not troubled with many theological problems or difficulties. Though he professes a general belief in the sacred writings of Zoroaster, he is not asked to profess any belief in the stories incidentally mentioned in the Zendavesta. If it is said in the Yazua that Zoroaster was once visited by Homa, who appeared before him in a brilliant supernatural body, no doctrine is laid down as to the exact nature of Homa. It is said that Homa was worshipped by certain ancient sages, Vivanhão, Athwya, and Thrita, and that, as a reward for their worship, great heroes were born as their sons. The fourth who worshipped Homa was Pourushaspa, and he was rewarded by the birth of his son Zoroaster. Now the truth is, that Homa is the same as the Sanskrit Soma, well known from the Veda as an intoxicating beverage used at the great sacrifices, and afterwards raised to the rank of a deity. The Parsis are fully aware of this, but they do not seem in the least disturbed by the occurrence of such "fables and endless genealogies." They would not be shocked if they were told, what is a fact, that most of these old wives fables have their origin in the religion which they most detest, the religion of the Veda, and that the heroes of the Zendavesta are the same who, with slightly changed names, appear again as Shemshid, Feriduin, Gershásp, &c., in the epic poetry of Firduia. Another fact which accounts for the attachment of the Prarsis to their religion is its remote antiquity and its former glory. Though age has little to do with truth, the length of time for which any system has lasted seems to offer a vague argument for its strength. It is a fee missionary appeals to when confronting the systems of later prophets. Thirdly, it is felt by the Parsis that in changing their religion, they would not only relinquish the heirloom of their remote forefathers, but of their own fathers; and it is felt as a dereliction of filial piety to give up what was most precious to those whose memory is most precious and almost sacred to themselves.

If in spite of all this, many people, most competent to judge, look forward with confidence to the conversion of the Parsis, it is because, in the most essential points, they have already, though unconsciously, approached as near as possible to the pure doctrines of Christianity. Let them but read the Zendavesta, in which they profess to believe, and they will find that their faith is no longer

because, in the most essential points, they have already, though unconsciously, approached as near as possible to the pure doctrines of Christianity. Let them but read the Zendavesta, in which they profess to believe, and they will find that their faith is no longer the faith of the Yazna, the Vendidad, and the Vispered. As historical relies, these works, if critically interpreted, will always retain a prominent place in the great library of the ancient world. As oracles of religious faith, they are defunct, and a mere anachronism in the age in which we live.

On the other hand, let missionaries read their Bible, and let them preach that Christianity which conquered the world—the genuine and unshackled Gospel of Christ and the Apostles. Let them respect native prejudices, and be tolerant with regard to all that can be tolerated in a Christian community. Let them consider that Christianity is not a gift to be pressed on unwilling minds, but the highest of all privileges which natives can receive at the hands of their present rulers. Natives of independent and honest character cannot afford at present to join the ranks of converts without losing that true caste which no man ought to lose—namely, self-respect. They are driven to prop up their tottering religions, rather than profess a faith which seems dictated to them by their conquerors. Such feelings ought to be respected. Finally, let missionaries study the sacred writings on which the faith of the Parsis is professedly founded. Let them examine the bulwarks which they mean to overthrow. They will find them less formidable from within than from without. But they will also discover that they rest on a foundation which ought never to be touched—a faith in one God, the Creator, the Ruler. they will also discover that they rest on a foundation which ought never to be touched—a faith in one God, the Creator, the Ruler, and the Judge of the world.

MARTHA BROWN.

THERE are a swarm of minor novels which rise like insects As it were, to enjoy the favouring sunshine of the day which calls them into existence. To read such novels is a minor pleasure; but we are not ungrateful for the little harmless distraction which some industrious authors provide for us at the dull season of the year, when books are voraciously and not very discriminately devoured. The promise of a first story is not usually fulfilled; reputation too often declines as volumes increase; and, without this being precisely the case with the author of Dorothy, we feel that she has certainly not made much progress in her art. Dorothy, unpretending, clever, and fresh, attained an immediate success, and seemed to point out its writer as one likely to be foremost in the ranks where Miss Yonge leads and so many humbly follow. Since the first story, several years have passed, and the author's pen has not been idle nor, in a manner, unsuccessful; but whether the novelty of Dorothy led one to expect more than there was to come, it is certain its successors have been somewhat disappointing. Martha Brown is no exception to this general remark, but rather an illustration of it. One proof of sagacity is, that the writer, knowing her own powers, prescribes a certain limit for their exercise, and does not venture beyond her depth—simply seeking to reflect life as it appears on the outside to an observant mind, and avoiding description of emotional experience, which is often unwholesome writing and dreary reading.

There is one favourite type of character which, under various modifications, we detect running like a vein through several of this author's stories. The character is that of a warm-hearted lady, clever and satirical, affecting bluntness and downrightness as a shield to sensitive feeling, partly because every one else is so polished, insincere, and hollow. This high-spirited piquant young lady was very charmingly portrayed in Dorothy, her little petulance of temper and sarcasm being condoned for the sake of nobler qualities. There is a family resemblance between her and as it were, to enjoy the favouring sunshine of the day which calls them into existence. To read such novels is a minor pleasure; but we are not ungrateful for the little harmless distraction

said the old man, rousing himself from an uneasy sleep, 'I shall not live to see another Christmas.' His niece looked up, and did not make merely a silent assent—'I do not think you will,' has said, after a pause." The two characters are well brought out in a few pages of conversation. Both are hard in their manner to each other, but not indifferent. The old man is not frightened at the thought that his end is fast approaching. It is time, he thinks that he should make room for others, and he says, "I have made the money, it is your turn to spend it; ch, Martha?" An expression of scorn and grief flitted across Marthn's face, and she made no direct reply. "Mr. Arnold said I should tell you of your state, Uncle Oliver, so that you might set your house in order." "Very obliging of Arnold; but I have no intention of making a codicil in his favour. As you know, Martha, my will was signed and sealed long ago. I have left everything to you, tied up and strictly in your own power, whether you die married or single." They talk on in a jarring strain, the niece resenting her uncle's remark about his young doctor, that preaching is not a bad way of ingratiating himself with young ladies, heiresses or otherwise. Here we find the key to the whole story. Mr. Brown has tried to impress on Martha's mind his own sentiments as to the base and sordid motives of mankind, which her more generous nature rejects, although she admits that the set in which they live justifies his cynicism tolerably well. The caustic and once vigorous old man is softened when he sees tears rise in Martha's eyes at his taunt. He is grieved to think of the lonely life she will lead when he is gone, and fears that her 20,000l. a year will prove a tempting bait for some hungry adventurer. He has taught her to be so fearful of such a fate that, repelling all who would know her, she stands alone, isolated by her wealth — she, who might be loved and loving, were it not for the golden bar sinister.

In the second chapter we find ourselves in a country parsonage

stands alone, isolated by her wealth—she, who might be loved and loving, were it not for the golden bar sinister.

In the second chapter we find ourselves in a country parsonage, the inmates of which are discussing the arrival of the city heiress, Miss Brown, who has taken Elwood Manor. Old Uncle Oliver is dead. In spite of bickerings and want of sympathy between them, as Martha acknowledged to him, in a rare moment of feeling—"You have indulged me too much, and when you are gone there will be no one left to love me for my own sake." Mr. Erle, the clergyman of the parish, his wife and pretty daughter, are bent on finding an acquisition in Martha—Mrs. Erle as lady patroness of various charities, Helen Erle as a distraction from the routine of home and parish duties, of which she felt sometimes weary. "Although she did not wish to go out into the world in search of dissipation, she had indulged a hope that dissipation might have come to their doors." This young lady does duty as seconda donna, and is rather a natural specimen, if not just a little more composed and ready than slight fair country girls of seventeen usually are. At first, Martha strikes her as alarmingly clever and decided, but the heiress is bent on cultivating an intimacy with the Erles, and Helen is a more congenial companion than her meek duenna and ex-governess, Mrs. Jenkins; besides which, it comes out in the singular, yet not unfrequent, chain of events, that Ambrose Arnold, the unworldly young doctor, is Mrs. Erle's brother. The lady laments that her clever brother should be so unpractical. He chose his profession chiefly as affording scope for a high and disinterested career. She is convinced he will never succeed. Uncle Ambrose is a prime favourite with all his nephews and nieces, who quote him as an authority; and when he arrives on a visit, Pippin, the youngest boy, invites him to share his peaceful retirement and occupation in making dirt pies in a ditch. Ambrose is a florid young man, with an "everwarying expression"—his yellow hair,

would be as easy to get up an interest in a squinting heroine as to imagine a hero without a firm jaw.

All details of local interest are fully discussed, including the sayings and doings of the new neighbour, whom Mrs. Erle pronounces good-natured though rather strong-minded. Ambrose, who talks in no measured terms, gives his opinion that Martha is a hard, overhearing woman, with all the pride of riches, which is even more offensive than the pride of birth. Poor Martha has made a scheme with Mr. Erle—only partly philanthropic on either side—to establish Mr. Arnold in a newly-populated moordistrict of the parish, where new tile works made the improvement of the place highly desirable, as neither clurch nor school were to be found on the bleak bit of moor. Miss Brown was bent on improving the sanitary arrangements of the hamlet in the first instance, her notions being eminently practical. Mr. Erle pointed out two public-houses, to which she replied, "in her odd way, that we also had souls to be saved, and yet thought it necessary to cat and drink." This observation Ambrose stigmatizes as just like her, making a parade of false and shallow-hearted cynicism. When they meet, there is a great display of pugnacity on either side — antagonism on Ambrose's part, and uncommonly plain speaking on both. Martha has never had a lover, so Ambrose escapes the odium of comparison. The heiress had, it is true, a matrimonial overture from Mr. Lionel Benson, who, with his father, are her sole trustees, but he was scornfully rejected. After a good deal of fighting, Ambrose decides to settle on Hedworth Common. Helen, with a mind unprejudiced and uninstructed by novel reading, shows the ingenuity of the female nature by discovering that her uncle and Martha are in love with each other. She confides her views to her mother, who scouts them as

* Martha Bressn, the Heiress. By the Author of "Dorothy." London : Parker, Son, & Bourn.

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preposterous; but as Helen is pertinacious, she sets her down by saying that it would be impossible to argue her out of a theory which she had taken such pains to construct. She desires her daughter to dismiss the subject from her mind, and takes the first epportunity of imparting Helen's suspicions to her father, who exclaims, "Those two in love! Pray, my dear, send for the trashiest novel Mr. Barfoot's shop can produce to drive such nonsease out of Helen's head." Thus Helen's intuitive knowledge was ridiculed, but her sagacity was in the end triumphant.

Miss Brown creates a sensation by giving a party, which introduces the Bensons, father and son, on the scene. Helen informs her father that Miss Brown said she hated them both, and should swamp them in company—which remark proper Mr. Erle presumes to be a quotation, and advises his daughter not to adopt her new friend's style of talking, which was more forcible than ladylike. Helen, being self-possessed, good-looking, and unused to society, appreciates an interchange of small talk with Mr. Lionel Benson, against whom she has been warned by Martha. He is described as refined in appearance and manners, and Helen's prejudice against him wears off more easily as he is not insensible to her charms; and he takes Hex Lodge, a cottage on the outskirts of the parish, as a summer residence. The heiress has a peculiar aversion to Mr. Lionel Benson, who, she thinks, affects candour to conceal his schemes. The writer gives play to her talents for light half-bantering conversation, in which Helen plays a very creditable part, and we feel more interested in the progress of her intimacy with Mr. Benson than in following the obvious course of Martha's fortunes. She and Helen go to stay at Sir Henry Wentworth's, whose brother has serious designs on Martha's good graces. Ambrose contrives, during a call, to make a very ambiguous speech to Martha in a tête-â-tête; but, receiving no satisfactory response in the confusion of the moment, Miss Brown is surprised into telling Helen t satisfactory response in the contains of the moment, ne rusnes of without betraying his love. In the unguarded confidence of the moment, Miss Brown is surprised into telling Helen that she has long loved Ambrose, and complains bitterly of the cruel pride that estranges them. Helen, without saying a word, writes to her uncle, suggesting his going to Elwood. He takes the hint, and, after having tried to hate and succumbed to love, he tells Martha the truth and there are created.

after having tried to hate and succumbed to love, he tells Martha the truth, and they are engaged.

Now comes the absurdity, acknowledged as such by the writer, but apparently intended to protract the story. Ambrose insists that their engagement shall not be declared for a year, in which time he shall be in a position by his success to claim her before all the world. The writer adds, "Even at such a moment, the absurdity of supposing that twelve months' practice as a country surgeon could make any great difference in their relative position and means, was sufficiently evident to Martha's practical mind." The interest of the story declines from this climax of folly; and though the consequences of the engagement, concealed from all but Mr. and Mrs. Erle and Helen, are not badly described, the effort of imagining such a woman as Martha madly in love with such a silly fellow as the Doctor is too great an exertion. Lionel discovers the state of affairs, and blames the Erles for countenancing a clandestine engagement and promoting Mr. Arnold's interests. He succeeds in making a great deal of mischief, and, working on Ambrose's smouldering jealousy, forces him to break off the engagement. Lionel's sordid motive is plainly discoverable in the end, and the only touch of melodrama is the Benson episode.

It would be unfair to the possible readers of Martha Brown.

off the engagement. Lionel's sordid motive is plainly discoverable in the end, and the only touch of melodrama is the Benson episode.

It would be unfair to the possible readers of Martha Brown to follow the plot of the story further. If Ambrose had been a more manly character, we should have read it with more satisfaction; as it is, we look with curiosity on a type of man supposed to be capable of awakening the interest and satisfying the strong affections of a sensible woman. Ambrose is what has been happily termed a man evolved out of the internal consciousness of a woman. The author makes us feel that Ambrose was very delightful to Martha; but, except his contempt for "the miserable money," we cannot acknowledge any other claim to her favour. He was very good to his patients, and devoted to them, which we hope is no very unusual trait in the profession. Authoresses exhibit themselves in the hero they create; and what a strange—we are thankful to say all but impossible—being is this feminine ideal! How the shrewd author of Dorothy has spoilt her work by introducing such a blunder as the idiotic Doctor, we are at a loss to comprehend. A different character, and a slightly different construction, might have made Martha Brown end as well as it began. The tone of the book is cheerful, often sprightly, with here and there a humorous touch, as in the capital description of the sayings and doings of Pippin. The writer does not willingly dwell on the hardships, sorrows, or disappointments of life. They only serve as a foil to the events she really likes to depict, and invariably lead to the happy end which makes the reader part company in good humour with this unaffected one-volume story, and with a writer who takes such a comfortable view of life.

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